

THE ESSENTIAL FACTS OF AMERICAN HISTORY

REVISED EDITION



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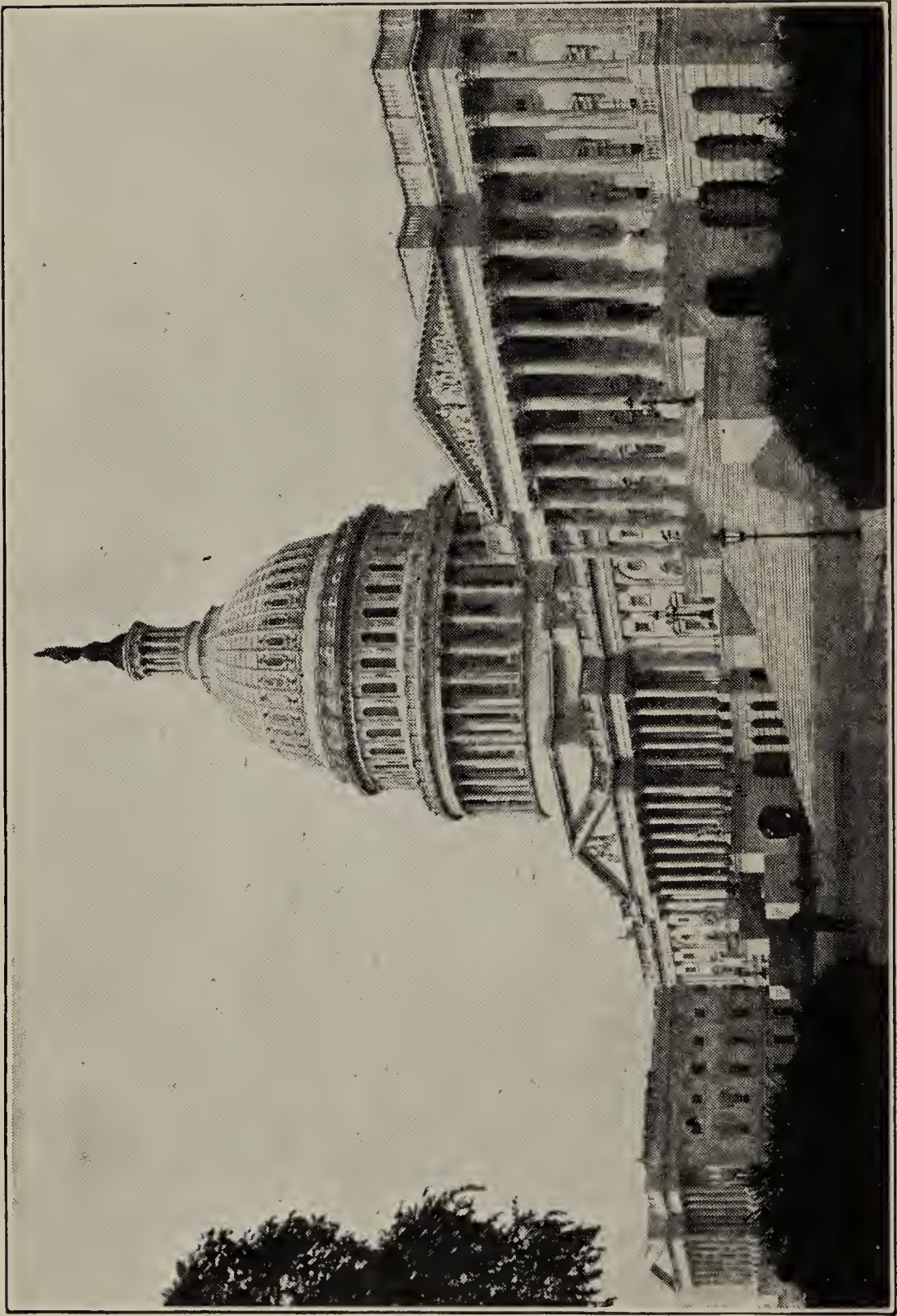
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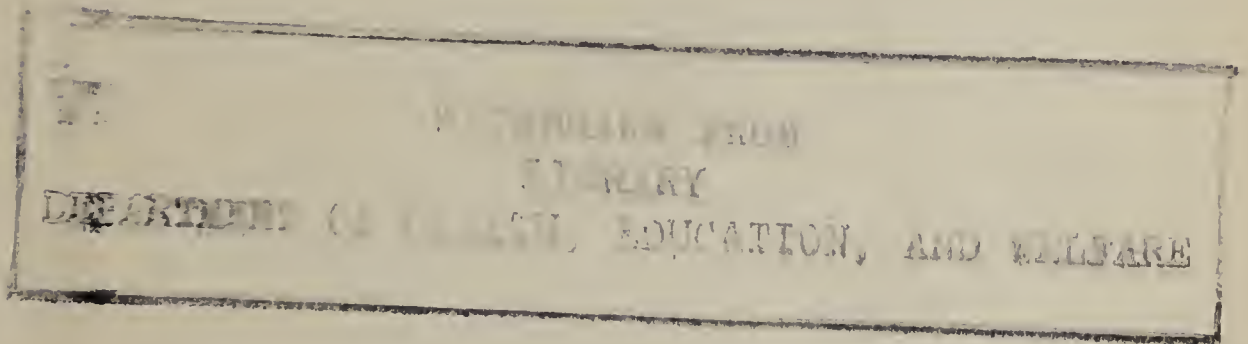


THE CAPITOL OF THE UNITED STATES OF AMERICA

✓ THE
ESSENTIAL FACTS
OF
AMERICAN HISTORY

REVISED EDITION

BY
LAWTON B. EVANS ✓
RYAN



BENJ. H. SANBORN & CO.
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INTRODUCTION

THIS book is the result of the author's desire to make the history of our country interesting to children, and, therefore, easily learned and long remembered. The child has been kept in mind constantly, in the selection of words in the sentences, in the length of the sentences themselves, and in the treatment of the narrative. By the child's ability to understand and to enjoy the history of his country as told in these pages, will the usefulness of this book be measured.

The text records the history of America in its great epochs only. The author has used the topical treatment of the subject, following the advice of the Committee of Eight on the Study of History, that "only typical events should receive emphasis, and those should be so grasped and so presented as to make definite impressions."

Many facts and figures have been omitted as unnecessary to the story of our national establishment. Those incidents that were not influential in the development of our country should be reserved for a larger text and a more mature inquiry. Herein the child need not be bewildered by details that cumber the story and confuse the mind.

The treatment of the narrative is dramatic and picturesque. At this stage of his mental development the child responds to the thrilling story of the explorers, founders, pioneers, and adventurers that carved their fortunes out of the wilderness. He gains inspiration from the lives of those great leaders that established, fought for, and maintained the government.

The philosophical and institutional aspect of history will be better appreciated in the later years of school life.

The chapters cover epochs and the lessons are topics or events within the epoch. Thus each lesson is a unit in itself and should be so considered in teaching the text. The author has avoided a meaningless gathering of facts in mere sequence of time, but has grouped facts in each topic according to their relation and interest. In this way the child gets a definite impression of one event at a time, as the story moves on in the cumulative narrative of our country's growth.

The facts of the Civil War are taught without passion or prejudice. Our country is too great and our traditions are too noble for the youth of these days to be reared with any motive except that of making them citizens of the entire country, proud of the deeds of their fathers, and forgetful of past differences.

Especially is this true in view of the splendid part borne by the United States in the great struggle in Europe now so happily ended by the overthrow and confusion of the enemies of the Allied powers. Of late years we have grown to a large appreciation of the greatness of our country, its vigor and life, its splendid force, and the influential part it will hereafter have in the affairs of the world.

In the hope that those who study these pages may find in them an abiding respect for the great men of the past and a deep inspiration for their own conduct in the future, the author submits the text to the indulgent consideration of that profession of which he has been a member for many years.

L. B. E.

AUGUSTA, GEORGIA

May, 1920

LIST OF BOOKS

The teacher will find the following inexpensive books suitable for supplementary reading and for expanding the condensed story of the text.

Explorers and Founders of America. (Foote and Skinner.) American Book Co. The story of the Norsemen; Columbus; the Spanish and French explorers; the English and Dutch settlers; Bacon; Braddock; Wolfe.

American Indians. (Frederick Starr.) D. C. Heath & Co. General facts about the life, customs, manners, and traditions of the Indians; their division into tribes and the peculiarity of each.

The Making of Virginia and the Middle Colonies. (Drake.) Charles Scribner's Sons. The story of the English in Virginia; the English in Maryland; the Great Iroquois League; the Dutch on Manhattan; the settlement of Delaware.

The Making of New England. (Drake.) Charles Scribner's Sons. The story of the exploring and settling of New England; the Pilgrims; the Puritans; colonies of Maine, New Hampshire, Connecticut, Rhode Island.

The Making of the Great West. (Drake.) Charles Scribner's Sons. The story of Joliet and Marquette; La Salle; Louisiana Purchase; Lewis and Clark; the Oregon Trail; gold in California; later history of the West.

The Conquest of the Old Northwest. (Baldwin.) American Book Co. The country around the Great Lakes; George Washington and Braddock; George Rogers Clark; subduing the wilderness.

Makers of American History. (Chandler and Chitwood.) Silver, Burdett & Co. A series of thirty-six interesting biographies covering the entire period of American history.

Colonial Children. (Hart.) The Macmillan Company. A story of the home life of the people in colonial times.

Home Life in Colonial Days. (Earle.) The Macmillan Company. The homes of the colonists; food and drink; occupations and sports; travel; Sunday observance; colonial customs; etc.

America First. (Evans.) Milton Bradley Co. A collection of one hundred best stories from American history, covering the entire period from the Norsemen to the World War.

Camps and Firesides of the Revolution. (Hart.) The Macmillan Company. Home life; highways and byways; the Indians; French and Indian wars; preparing for the Revolution; Revolutionary firesides; in camp; in the field.

Hero Tales from American History. (Roosevelt and Lodge.) The Century Company. Washington; Boone; Monroe; Adams; Parkman; Stonewall Jackson; Sheridan; Lincoln; etc.

Children's Stories of American Progress. (Wright.) Charles Scribner's Sons. The Barbary Pirates; Louisiana Purchase; Lewis and Clark; the steamboat; the railroad; the telegraph; the Mexican War.

Romance of the Civil War. (Hart.) The Macmillan Company. Plantation life; the condition of the slaves; in and out of the army; boy soldiers and sailors; in camp and on the march; on deck; women and the war.

A School History of the Great War. (McKinley, Coulomb, Gerson.) American Book Co. A brief history of 180 pages covering the main facts in the World War.

Our Country in Poem and Prose. (Persons.) American Book Co. A collection of short poems and incidents covering the entire period of American history.

The Liberty Reader. (Sheridan.) Benj. H. Sanborn & Co. A collection of contemporary prose and verse of the World War, arranged especially for children.

The more extensive writings of Fiske, Parkman, Schouler, McMaster, Bancroft, and Ridpath are recommended to those who desire an exhaustive study of the history of our country.

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The Essential Facts of American History

CHAPTER I

THE OLD WORLD

1. THE MIDDLE AGES

Before we study the history of the New World it will be well for us to know something of the Old World from which came the discoverers, the explorers, and the founders of our own great country.

About two thousand years ago the great Roman Empire extended over the southern part of Europe as far as the Rhine and Danube rivers. Beyond those rivers and indeed in many parts of the Empire itself lived a barbarian people who had none of the arts of civilization, and who spent their time in hunting and fishing, or in warfare. These people, who were called Teutons, were divided like our Indians into tribes, such as the Angles, the Franks, the Saxons, and the Goths.

All of these barbarous tribes were far removed from the civilization and culture of the Greeks and the Romans. They were primitive in their habits with scant ideas of law and order. They loved warfare and adventure more than they loved anything else. They lived in cabins, made in a rough way, or else in caves in the sides of the hills. For clothing they depended largely on the skins of animals. They gained a livelihood by hunting for game,

**Character of
the Teutons**

and by tilling the soil, and by caring for herds and flocks, that gave them meat, milk, and a poor kind of cheese. Most of the heavy labor was left to the women.

For the most part the tribes wandered through the vast forests, or over the mountains — a dangerous, savage people, blue-eyed, tall and fair, deadly in battle, and cruel to their victims. And yet from this ancient stock, combined through



EXTENT OF THE ROMAN EMPIRE IN THE WEST

the centuries with the Roman people, have come all the nations of Western Europe from which sprang our own ancestors.

As might have been expected, these warlike and savage tribes began to cross the Danube and Rhine rivers in vast hordes and to mingle with the Romans. The Roman people, weakened by indolence, wealth, and indulgence, were no longer a conquering nation. Their armies were not the equals of the fierce warriors of the north. The tribe of Goths, living

along the Danube, defeated the Roman armies, seized a large territory, and settled comfortably on Roman soil.

Later on a Goth leader named Alaric called his fierce soldiers together, ravaged the Roman territory, marched upon Rome and sacked that imperial city. He took all the gold, silver, precious goods, and slaves, and insolently told the dismayed people, "I shall leave you your lives, but little else." Thus was proud Rome humbled by the Goths, at the beginning of the fifth century.

What the Goths had done, other tribes attempted to do. Rome became an easy prey to the vandals of the north. For many years the great Empire was harassed and overrun by hungry, merciless hordes of cruel barbarians, who pillaged, destroyed, and slew to their hearts' content. At the end came the downfall of the Roman

The down-
fall of Rome,
476



THE KIND OF HOUSES THE ANCIENT TEUTONS LIVED IN

Empire in the West, and all the vast territory of Europe was in possession of the Teutonic tribes.

Then followed a thousand years, beginning in the fifth and ending in the fifteenth century, during which the nations of Europe were slowly forming out of the mixture of the old

Roman people and the hardy blood of the conquerors. These centuries are known as the Middle Ages. They connect the ancient civilization of Rome with the civilization of modern times. During these ages civilization was almost at a standstill. The arts, sciences, and industries were neglected, education was almost unknown, ignorance, superstition, and warfare held sway. It was a long night in the history of Europe.

The tribe of Franks had crossed the Rhine about the time the Goths had crossed the Danube. They set up a rude government, and gradually occupied all the territory that is now France, Belgium, and Holland. They grew in strength and numbers and finally absorbed what Roman people were

in the land, taking on some of the Roman civilization and finally adopting the Christian religion.

The greatest king of the Franks was Charlemagne or Charles the Great. He was not only a great soldier, but also a wise ruler. He put down rebellions, defended his kingdom against all enemies, and improved his system of government. He fought many wars during his reign, extending his empire until it covered half of Europe. He was a friend of learning and education. In those days there were almost no books



CHARLEMAGNE

and no schools. Charlemagne himself learned to read a little after he was grown, but never could learn to write. He

encouraged the priests to found schools and teach the people, but, generally, learning was looked upon with contempt at a time when war was the main thought of the people.

The only one of those rude tribes that ever touched our own immediate history was the Norsemen, who lived in the northern part of Europe, in what is now Norway, Sweden, and Denmark. They were very daring and skillful sailors. Their ships were long, carrying oars and sails and having carved images in the bow. They sailed to Iceland, and afterwards as far as Greenland. On the southwestern coast of Greenland, near Cape Farewell, these bold seamen founded a colony which lasted five hundred years, and some ruins of which may be seen at the present day.



THE NORSEMEN LAND IN LABRADOR ABOUT THE YEAR 1000

day.

Soon after the Greenland colony was founded, one of the Norse leaders, named Leif Ericson, sailed westward with one ship and thirty-five men to see what he could find. Some sailors who had been blown off their course had told him there was land in that direction.

After many days' sailing he came to land somewhere in a strange country, which he called Vinland, or Vine land, on account of the delicious grapes which grew there in abundance. We do not know where Vinland

was or what shores the brave Norsemen saw, but we suppose they landed somewhere in Labrador, and then continued their voyage down the coast. This was about the year 1000.

When they went back to the colony in Greenland they told strange stories of the fruits and timber they had found, and the wild people they had seen on those distant shores. The stories were written out afterwards, and are kept to this day. It is from them that we know of these early visitors to our country.

For a number of years ships went back and forth from Greenland to the new country. The sailors carried home fruit and timber, and told many stories of the wild natives they had seen.

All attempts of the Norsemen to found a colony in these strange lands failed. The natives were not friendly. They slew some of the settlers, and made so much trouble that the Norsemen gave up the effort to establish a colony. Their ships ceased to go back and forth, all records of their houses were destroyed, and the wild men of the West were left undisturbed by the wanderers from across the sea.

After all, we know very little of what the Norsemen did or what they saw in America. They may have come as far south as Rhode Island, or Connecticut, but they left no houses or monuments to mark their path. Their story is told in their old writings called the "Norse Sagas," from which we learn what kind of men they were, and something of the shores they visited.

2. LIFE OF THE NOBLES

The people generally, during the Middle Ages, were divided into three classes. There were the nobles, who owned the

land, and were the ruling class; the peasants, who tilled the soil, kept the stores, and did all the work; and the clergy, who looked after the affairs of the church.

The class of nobles was founded on the theory that the king or ruler who had conquered a country owned all the land and the people in it, and had the right to divide them out among his relatives, favorites, and friends. Vast estates were granted to dukes, lords, barons, and the like, who established themselves upon their lands, built great castles to live in, surrounded themselves with servants and soldiers, and made all the people on their lands work for them. The system is called the Feudal System.

The nobles

The chief business of these lords was war, because they had to keep the lands they had, or else they wanted the lands that belonged to some other lord or baron. They were also bound to answer the call of the king for soldiers and to follow him in his wars. This was one of the conditions of their being made lord or baron. Even the amusements of the nobility were playing at warlike games, such as tournament, or tilting on horseback with spear and lance, and fencing with swords. They had no profitable employment and considered work of any kind beneath their rank and notice.



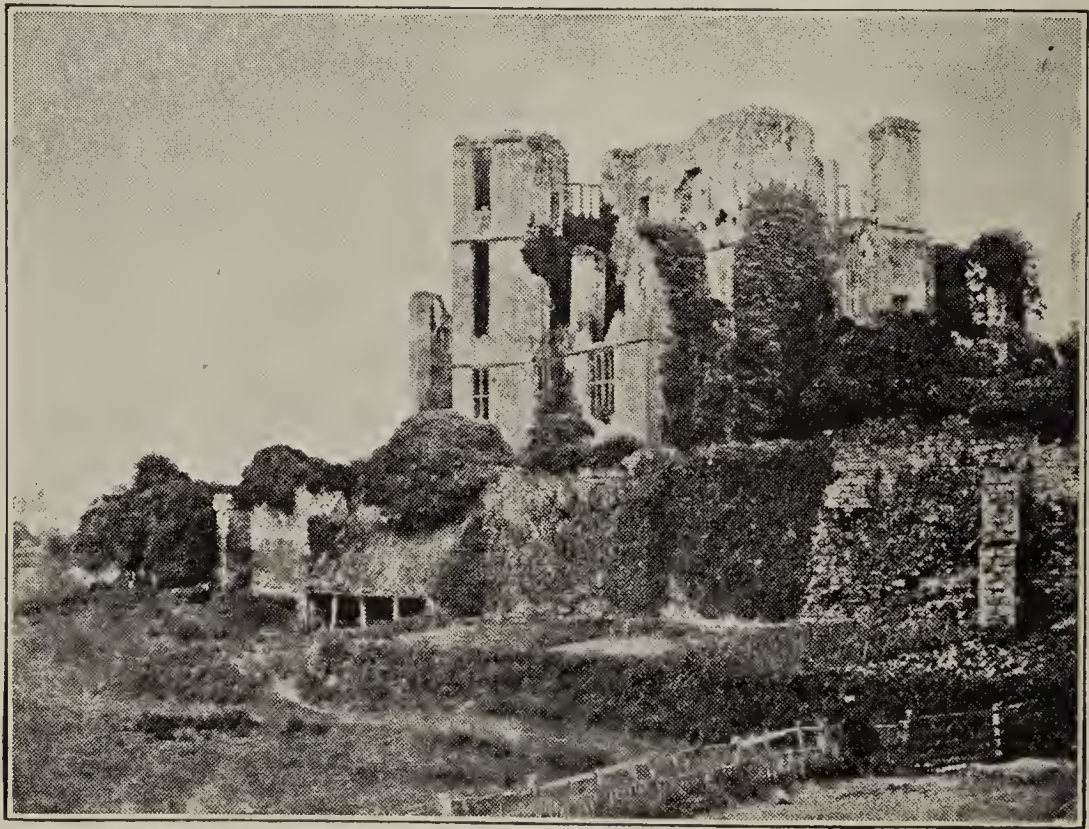
THE ANCIENT CASTLES WERE THE HOMES OF THE LORDS, AS WELL AS FORTS FOR THE PROTECTION OF THE PEOPLE

Even the amusements of the nobility were playing at warlike games, such as tournament, or tilting on horseback with spear and lance, and fencing with swords. They had no profitable employment and considered work of any kind beneath their rank and notice.

The houses of these nobles were called castles. Since wars often occurred among the nobles themselves and the whole

country was open to foreign invasions, these castles were built of great strength. They were very like forts, inside of which the lord and his followers lived, and to which all of his people could flee for protection against their enemies. Travelers in Europe today can find in many places ivy-covered ruins of great stone castles, with massive

The castles



IVY-COVERED RUINS OF A FEUDAL CASTLE

walls and tall towers, in which once lived proud and fierce barons.

In time of war it was the lord's duty to gather his knights and soldiers together and lead them to the fields of battle. They put on armor and helmets, carried heavy swords and battle axes, and rode powerful horses. Gunpowder had not yet been invented, and all combats were hand-to-hand, so that a battle in those days was won by strength of arm and individual courage. Even the kings themselves went

armed into battle, and some of them were very powerful warriors.

In case a lord's castle was attacked or besieged, it was provided with many means of defense. It was often surrounded by a deep ditch, or moat, filled with water and with a drawbridge for entering or leaving the castle, or else it was built on a steep hillside, up which no enemy could climb. The walls were built of stone, tall and thick, with towers and parapets on top, from which the soldiers could repel an attack. From these parapets they hurled stones, or discharged arrows and spears, upon their enemies.

Inside the walls the peasants from the farms and villages crowded for protection, leaving their homes and crops to be destroyed by the invaders. Grain and supplies were stored to withstand a siege. These castles were the scenes of many bloody battles, as the lords sought to settle by warfare their petty quarrels among themselves.

In times of peace the great castle was not an attractive place to live in. The **Life in the castles** rooms were gloomy and damp and cold, for there was no window glass, the only light coming through narrow open slits in the walls. The sleeping rooms of the



A KNIGHT
IN ARMOR

attendants were small and poorly furnished. They were never warmed and but dimly lighted by ill-smelling candles. The great hall where the lord and his family slept, ate, and held



THE ENTRANCE TO A CASTLE WAS PROTECTED BY GATES AND BY A DRAWBRIDGE OVER A DITCH, OR MOAT

their court was gloomy and cold at times with its dark walls and ceilings. It was cheerful only when the big fire of wood was blazing in the fireplace. the tables spread with the rich feasts, and the

company singing and laughing at some festival or celebration.

This great hall was the center of the life of the castle. It was here that the banquets were held, here came the vassals to do homage to the lord, here the wandering minstrels and players came to amuse the household, and here all visitors were received. There were no books to read, no letters, no newspapers, and no work, so that all the life of the castle centered about preparation for war, amusement at tournaments, or hunting wild animals in the lord's forests.

The attendants occupied themselves in caring for the horses, cleaning the equipment and arms of the lords and knights, cutting wood in the forest, and cooking food for the household. There were guards for the walls and gates, and porters for each entrance. All together a castle was a big, frowning, gloomy fort built for defense, in which lived the lord of the manor, and around which toiled the peasants who

cultivated the soil and supplied the needs of the masters of the land.

3. LIFE OF THE PEOPLE

Very different from the life of the lords and barons was the life of the peasants, who dwelt around the great castle and worked upon the farms. The lord of the castle owned all the land for miles around, holding it under the king's grant as his vassal. This land was divided into small farms, on which the peasants lived and for the use of which they made certain payments to the lord and performed certain duties.

These peasants were called "serfs" or "villains." They went with the land, and so long as they performed their services and made their payments, the lord could not take away their lands, nor deprive their children of the right to use them. ^{The peasants} These payments consisted of fixed sums of money, or part of the crops, or part of the pigs, lambs, and poultry. In addition to this, the serfs had to plow the lord's domain, plant and gather his grain, thresh it, and store it in the lord's barns. They had to build additions to the castle, repair the damages done by war, work on the roads, and pay tithes to the church. In the end there was not much left for the peasants themselves.

The peasants generally lived in little villages, huddled up close to the great castle to which they could fly for protection when attacked. Their houses were little else than ^{Their houses} wooden huts, covered with straw or rushes. The floor was of dirt, and the furniture of the rudest sort. In a shed-room were kept the cattle and the tools for working the lands. There were no windows and no chimneys. The cooking and heating were done on the floor, and the smoke

left to get out of the cracks in the walls or the open door, the best way it could.

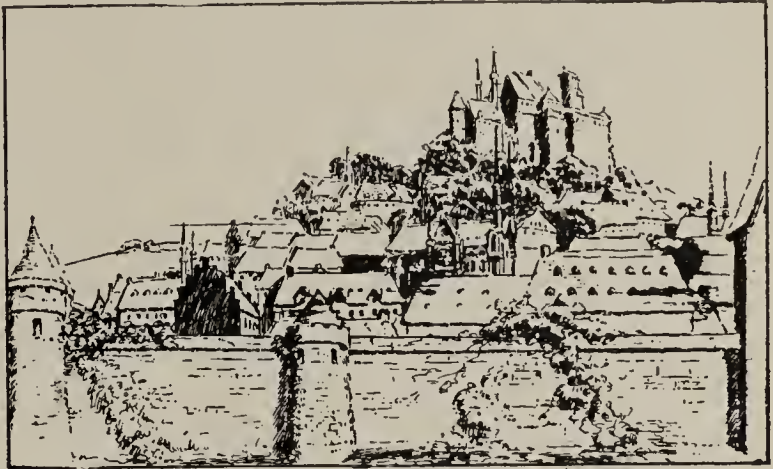
The food of the peasant was of the coarsest sort, consisting largely of grain, coarse beans and dried meat, and occasionally
Their food but not often, a pig or a chicken. The best was kept for the castle and for the priests. Sometimes a bad season would bring a failure of the crops and then the lot of the peasant was hard indeed. Between sickness and famine he was lucky to live until the next harvest. Being bound to the land he could not leave, and was compelled to endure whatever hardships his lot called for.

His clothing was coarse, often one garment only, tied around the waist with a rope. He could not marry, nor give his daughter in marriage, without his lord's consent. There were practically no schools for his children, and no books for them to study. There were robbers in the near-by forests that kept him in great terror, and as for the outside world, he knew absolutely nothing of it. His vision never went beyond the castle and the farm. His life held only toil and privation.

Thus life with the lords in the castle and the peasants in the field went on for hundreds of years in the Middle Ages. It took a long time for the people to arouse themselves from these conditions. At last there came about in the tenth and eleventh centuries a gradual change in the life and thoughts of the people. The villages about the castle grew larger and became towns, the houses were better, churches were built, commerce and even manufacturing began to revive.

Rise of towns Then the people began to travel from place to place, and to exchange ideas. They began to question the right of the nobles to hold them in this half-slavery. The towns grew into cities and the people desired

no longer to be peasants and bound to the lords and to the land. Ideas of freedom and independence arose, and the lordly barons began to lose their power and influence. The people now began to throw off the yoke of the lords and barons, and to assert their own rights.

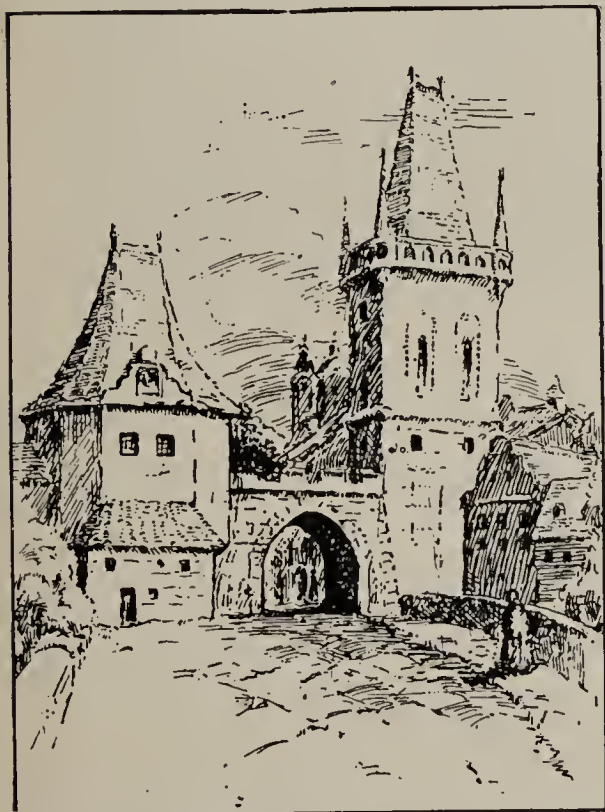


AN ANCIENT WALLED CITY, SHOWING THE GROWTH OF THE VILLAGE AROUND THE CASTLE

Sometimes the people demanded a charter of

Free cities

the lord, with rights to make their own laws, own their own lands, and regulate their own affairs. If the lord refused they would attack his castle and compel him to yield.



THE GUARDED ENTRANCE TO A WALLED TOWN

Sometimes the people would buy the freedom of their town for a large sum of money, and thus become a "free city," over which the lord had no control whatever. All the time the people were becoming more civilized, learning trades, becoming better artisans, sending their children to school, and building larger and more beautiful houses to live in. They were thinking less about the lords and more about themselves.

The free towns, however,

had to provide means of defense. In many cases they were surrounded by a high and massive wall, with towers and battlements from which an enemy could be repelled. In some cases the towns were surrounded by a ditch filled with water. Immense iron gates opened to the outside fields in the daytime, but were carefully closed and guarded at night. Those were



VENICE

the walled towns of Medieval Europe about which have been written many a story of love and adventure.

Inside, the streets were very narrow and crooked, badly paved and never lighted at night except by such torches or lanterns as the travelers carried. The houses **Inside the walled towns** were often two or three stories high, with balconies over the streets. In them was no water supply, lighting system, or sewerage. The artisans worked by hand in wood and metal and cloth, for there were no machines in those

days. The merchants displayed their wares in the windows or on the streets. Occasionally a pack horse or a clumsy cart drawn by some peasant would lumber along, a rich merchant would pass in his carriage, or some ruler or prince would go by with his attendants on the way to his palace. Otherwise the city was filled with poor people who for the most part had to work hard to keep alive.

In this way grew up the cities of Venice, Pisa, Genoa, Florence, and others, which became the centers of wealth, industry, and art. In France and Germany, **The growth of cities** there were towns filled with people of industry and skill, seeking to establish a better condition for themselves by improvements in the arts and sciences, by building great churches, by founding schools, and by holding fairs for the exchange of goods. The rise and growth of those cities developed the spirit of freedom among the people, and had much to do with the revival of the arts of civilization.

4. INFLUENCE OF THE CHURCH

During all the long centuries when progress was at a standstill, and civilization seemed asleep in the darkness of the Middle Ages, the Christian Church alone remained alive and active. Its priests and missionaries went into the regions of the most barbarous tribes and converted their leaders to the simple faith of Christ. Cruel warriors and fierce kings embraced the Christian religion, and were baptized with their followers.

Influenced by the saintly lives and sacrifices of the priests, and yielding to their teaching, the pagan nations of Europe one by one gave up their ancient religions. Thus when Europe emerged from the darkness of the Middle Ages, it came out a Christian country.

Every village had its little church and its priest; every castle had its chapel where the lords and knights paid their devotions. At last when the villages grew into towns, and the towns grew into cities, and the cities became free and the people threw off the yoke of the lords, it was the pride of each to build a great church



CANTERBURY CATHEDRAL

or cathedral to the glory of God, representing the faith and the sacrifice of the people.

These great cathedrals may yet be found in Europe. Some of them are marvels of architectural beauty and splendor. It took millions of dollars, and the genius of the greatest builders to erect them. To their decoration sculptors and painters contributed their genius, often without reward.

These vast and noble cathedrals became the rallying place of the life and thought of the people in their new-found freedom, taking the place of the castles of the lords which had represented so much oppression and misery. The church of the bishop took the place of the castle of the baron, as the center of community life.

The church at that time was of one organization. The head of the church was the Pope. He was the bishop of Rome, and had charge of the affairs of the church everywhere. Under his direction were bishops and archbishops in charge of certain districts. Then came priests, monks, and missionaries, whose duty it was with the bishop to preach to the people, convert the heathen, marry the living, bury the dead, and console the distressed everywhere.

That part of the clergy who withdrew from the world and lived apart were the monks. They were priestly men who gave up their lives to caring for the sick and the poor, teaching the children, copying books and manuscripts, and performing other holy services. They wore coarse woolen cloth, with a hood to cover the head, and a girdle about the waist. They took vows of poverty for themselves, and gave up, not only their lives, but everything they had and made, to the church.

The monks lived in monasteries, which were like great gloomy barracks, containing chapels, halls, sleeping cells, work rooms, and eating rooms. Some monasteries were surrounded by walls in the same way as the old castles to protect them from robbers. Outside the monasteries were the fields where the monks raised the grain

The monks



A MONK

they needed, and tended their flocks. Gradually these monasteries grew larger and stronger and accumulated more lands. Kings and nobles would grant lands and make gifts to them, and in return the monks would pray for them.

Though the monks and priests themselves had no wealth, the church through them became wealthy and powerful in many places. By gifts and grants and careful management, the church came to own large areas of land and many valuable concessions. The bishops and archbishops grew into a wealthy and powerful class wielding great influence over the destiny of the nations of Europe. The spiritual power of the Pope and the bishops extended over every Christian nation, and in many matters



A MONK COPYING AN OLD MANUSCRIPT

of war, royal marriages, and kingly succession, the consent of the church was necessary to make them binding.

Since there were no printing presses in the Middle Ages, it became the office of the monks, shut up in

monasteries, to copy all the old manuscripts and the old books, in order that they might not be lost to the world. All the books of that time were made by hand, on large sheets of prepared skin called parchment.

The monk sat in the writing room of the monastery, a large board before him, on which was a sheet of parchment. Day after day he wrote or copied a manuscript or a Copying book, or a portion of the Bible, beautifully and manuscripts carefully, in blue, gold, and crimson ink. It required many months of patience and endurance, much skill and infinite pains to make one book. The sheets were bound together, a thick stout cover was put about them, and the completed book was stored among the treasures of the monastery. In this way, many wonderful and beautiful copies of the Bible have come down to us, as well as many valuable works of the ancients.

The clergy were the only educated class, consequently they taught all the schools. In those days it was no disgrace to be ignorant and even kings and queens could not read or write. The priests encouraged the people to send their children to the monasteries to learn how to read and write. They founded outside schools, which grew after a while into great colleges and universities. While the church was growing into wealth and power and influence, it was also doing a vast deal of good in the world, by spreading the Christian religion, by educating the people, and by preserving the Bible and the literature of the ancient writers.

The greatest movement toward the end of the Middle Ages was the Crusades. It was the purpose of this warfare to rescue the Holy Sepulcher of Christ from the infidel The Crusades, Arabs and Turks, who had possession of Jerusalem 1096-1270 and Palestine. There were a number of these Crusades, some of them foolish and all of them failures. The Crusaders set forth in large bands, led by knights on horseback, with crosses on their banners, and with a great deal of religious fervor, but poorly provided with food and implements of war.

Thousands died on the way and many turned back, but some armies did reach Jerusalem and stormed the walls of that ancient city.

Jerusalem fell into the hands of the Crusaders (1099), was retaken eighty-eight years later (1187), and remained



THE CRUSADERS MARCHING TO RESCUE THE HOLY SEPULCHER

in the hands of the Turks. There were four large and several minor Crusades, covering a period of almost two hundred years. They served largely to bring the European nations together in one common holy purpose, and to acquaint the people with countries beyond their own borders.

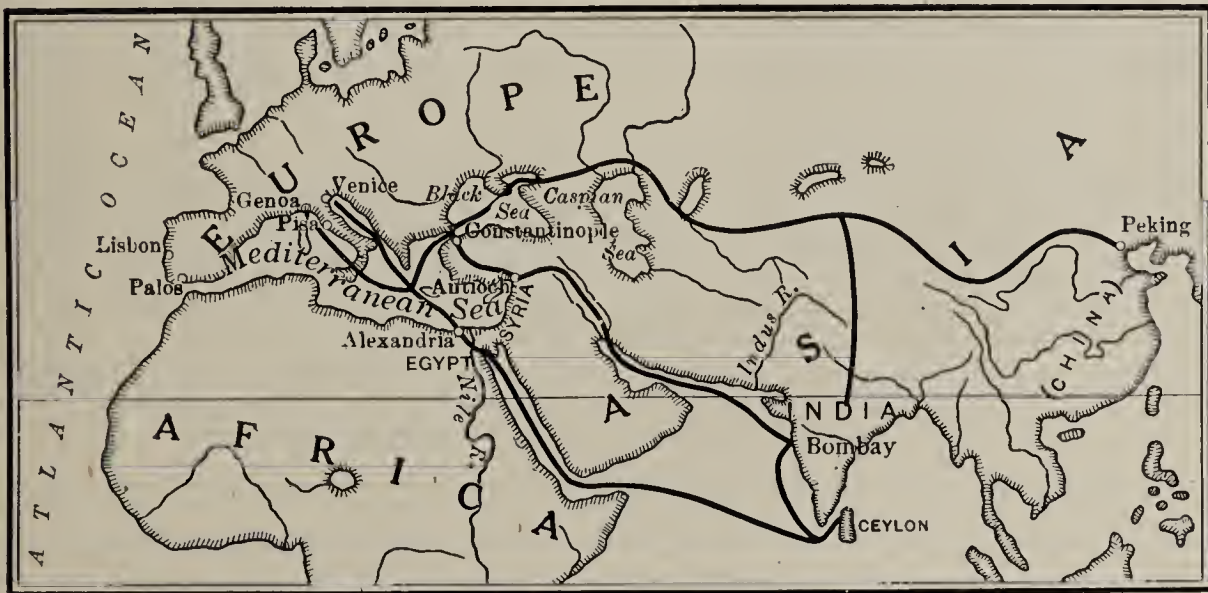
5. TRADING WITH THE EAST

The Crusades did not rescue the Holy Sepulcher from the hands of the infidels, but they did have a great influence over the people of Europe. The Crusaders and pilgrims to the

Holy Land learned a great deal about the countries through which they passed, their minds were broadened, and a desire to travel and see new cities and peoples was created. Besides this, many products and wares of the Eastern countries were introduced into Europe.

These travelers learned the use of sugar, wheat, rice, oranges, lemons, and melons. They brought back silks, satins, velvets, muslins, for clothing, and beautiful rugs and carpets for their houses. They returned with perfumes and spices, precious stones, and gold ornaments. In order to have all these products of the

The influence of the Crusades



TRADE ROUTES TO THE EAST

East, a trade with the rich countries of India, Persia, and China sprang up, and trade routes to the East were soon opened by European merchants.

Venice and Genoa rapidly grew into great, prosperous, and beautiful cities, for they were the centers of commerce. Their merchants had great fleets sailing to the seaports of the eastern Mediterranean, to meet the caravans from the East that had come overland laden with

Trade with the East

their rich cargoes. These caravans had traveled many hundred miles from Persia, India, even from China, and brought to the traders of Europe those wonderful products that were so eagerly sought for by the rich people of the European countries.

This mingling of traders and products by means of the caravans made parts of Asia well known to the people of Europe. The Eastern merchants told marvelous tales of their rich countries, of palaces paved with gold, and cities crowded with people, of forests laden with spices, and gardens rich in perfume. Then the European merchants were filled with desire to find their own way to India and to those wonderful cities of the Far East.

About the year 1272, Marco Polo, a young Venetian, went with his father and uncle traveling to China and other countries of the Far East. Here they were royally received and entertained for a long time. They stayed in China for about twenty-five years. When they started home they were loaded with the most costly presents. The party traveled as beggars, however, for fear of robbers. On their arrival at Venice they invited their friends and relatives to a banquet. During the feast the seeming beggars threw aside their rags and put on the most costly garments. They ripped open their cast-off clothing and drew forth quantities of diamonds, rubies, and other precious stones. They told marvelous stories of the countries they had visited, and the riches to be found in those distant lands. Marco Polo afterwards became a prisoner of war, and while in prison wrote the story of his travels. He was called "the prince of travelers."

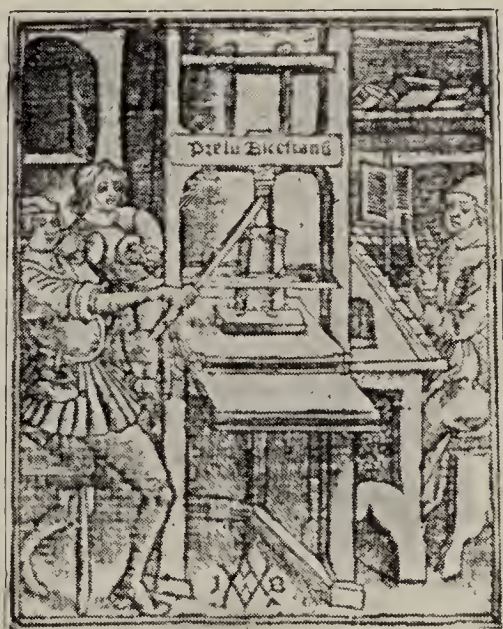
Along with the growth of cities, rise of free institutions, revival of industries, and extension of trade, there came into

European life some valuable inventions that aided the advancement of civilization. The most notable of these was the invention of printing by means of movable type, first made by John Gutenberg of Strassburg, Germany, about the year 1450. This invention opened the way for the making of books and the education of the people. Almost equally notable was the invention of the mariner's compass, by means of which sailors could direct the course of ships sailing out of sight of land. The third most notable invention was that of gunpowder and the use of cannon, which made suits of armor, castles, and walled cities useless as means of defense.

On the whole, however, the people at large had many things to learn. They knew little of the shape and size of the earth, and were terrified at the mystery of the seas. In

those days most people thought the earth was flat and that the ocean extended into terrible regions beyond the land. The sailing vessels were small, and sailors were afraid to go far from shore. They had heard dreadful stories of great monsters and sea serpents that lived in the ocean, and of terrible storms that wrecked all sailing craft.

It is true that a few wise men believed that the earth only appeared to the eye to be flat, and that in fact it was round. The people generally could not be persuaded that this was so. They asked how a ship that sailed over one side of the ocean could ever sail up again, and how people could live on the other side of the earth with heads downward. We know now how



MAKING THE FIRST BOOK FROM
MOVABLE TYPE

foolish such questions were, but it was hard to make anybody believe them foolish in those days.

In the meantime the trade with the East grew in importance, and merchant ships continued to sail along the Mediterranean, and even to the ports of India. But the Turks **The menace of the Turks** began to attack the caravans coming overland from Persia and India and to rob the Eastern merchants



THE KNOWN WORLD IN THOSE DAYS CONSISTED OF EUROPE, ASIA, AND PARTS OF AFRICA

of their rich wares, and pirate ships appeared in the Mediterranean Sea. Under these conditions, a sea-way to India, different from the ones then known, was eagerly discussed by the merchants and ship owners of Europe.

The easiest way, of course, was to sail around Africa. In order to do this the ships would have to cross the equator, and everybody was afraid of the "burning tropics," **A sea-way to India** where it was thought to be so hot that the very seas were boiling. Besides, Africa might extend to the end of the earth. Nobody knew how far the land extended, and seamen were afraid to find out. Adventurous sailors, from

Portugal, however, urged onward by a wise and capable prince whom we know as "Prince Henry of Portugal," crept fearfully down the African coast a little farther with each voyage until (1486) the southernmost point was reached and named the Cape of Good Hope.

While these explorations and discussions were going on, a few learned men, desiring to discover the distant shores of Asia, thought that a better way would be to sail around the earth. If it were true that the earth was round, one could reach India and the East by sailing west, if he were brave and sailed far enough.

They did not know what a long time it would take to sail around the big earth. They did not know what lands were in the way. They thought that Asia was only a few thousand miles across the dreaded seas. Some of their beliefs were right and some were wrong, as we shall see farther on in our history.

TOPICS

The Middle Ages. Extent of the Roman Empire. The Teutons; the Teuton tribes; their mode of living; mingling with the Romans; the Goths on Roman soil. Alaric and the sack of Rome. Fall of the Roman Empire in the West. The Middle Ages. Civilization in the Middle Ages. The Franks settle France and adjacent countries. Charlemagne; his conquests; his encouragement to his people. The Norsemen; in Greenland; Leif Ericson and Vinland; shores explored; failure to establish colonies.

Life of the Nobles. The three classes of people in the Middle Ages. How the nobility was founded; estates granted. Chief business of the nobles; obligations to the king; amusements. The castles; present-day ruins. The times of war; combats. How the castles were defended; refuge of the peasants. Inside the castles; the great hall; amusements. The lord's attendants.

Life of the People. Where the peasants lived. Serfs or villains. Obligations of the serfs. How the peasants lived; their food; their

clothing; their condition. The rise of towns; ideas of freedom. Beginning of free cities. Improvement of the people. Walled towns. Inside the walled towns. The growth of cities. The towns of France and Germany. Ambitions of the people.

Influence of the Church. Life of the church; priests and missionaries; conversion of the pagans; churches, chapels, and cathedrals. The great cathedrals of Europe. The cathedral a center of community life. The organization of the church. The monks; their occupation; dress; vows. Monasteries; how protected; the fields outside; growth in wealth. The power of the church; the bishops and archbishops; spiritual power of the Pope. Copying manuscripts. The schools of the Middle Ages; colleges and universities. The good done by the church. The Crusades; their purpose; the Crusaders; their fate. Capture and loss of Jerusalem. Effect of the Crusades.

Trading with the East. What the Crusaders and pilgrims learned. What the travelers brought back. The beginning of trade. Venice and Genoa. The Eastern caravans. The tales of the Eastern merchants. Marco Polo; his adventures in China; his return to Venice; the marvelous stories of the travelers. Invention of printing; the mariner's compass; gunpowder. Belief in regard to the shape of the earth; dread of the seas; ignorance of the people. Increase of trade. Menace of the Turks. Need of a sea-way to India. Sailing around Africa. Prince Henry of Portugal. Sailing around the earth. Mistaken ideas.

SUBJECTS FOR STUDY

What influences led to the decay and fall of the Roman Empire? What effect did the mingling of Roman and Teuton races have on the people of Europe? Why was civilization at a standstill during the Middle Ages? What does civilization owe to the activities of the church during the Middle Ages? What effects upon the world did the invention of printing, of the mariner's compass, and of gunpowder have? Why were India, Persia, and China further advanced in arts and sciences than Europe? Why did the majority of people think the earth was flat? What reason can you assign for the dread of the seas by the sailors in those days? What proofs did the wise men have for thinking the earth is round?

COMPOSITION

Write an account of the hardships of a peasant's life in the Middle Ages.

Describe the making of a book by a monk.

Write an account of what an Eastern merchant told a European trader about his experiences in the caravan.

MAP QUESTIONS

Locate the Rhine and Danube rivers. Locate Rome and the extent of the Roman Empire. Describe the probable route of the Crusaders by land or by sea. Locate Venice, Genoa, Lisbon, Bombay, Peking. Compare the distance from Venice to China, going eastward and going westward.

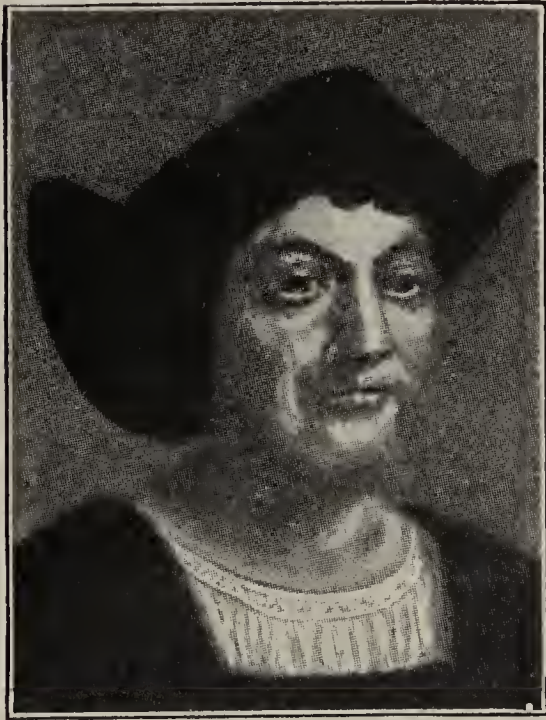
Collateral Reading. "The Skeleton in Armor," by Longfellow. "Norse Stories," by Hamilton Mabie.

CHAPTER II

DISCOVERING AND EXPLORING THE NEW WORLD

1. THE STORY OF COLUMBUS

About the year 1446 there was born in the city of Genoa a boy named Christopher Columbus. His father was a poor



CHRISTOPHER COLUMBUS

man, but he gave his son as good an education as the schools of that day afforded.

The boy was fond of adventure as well as of study. When he was fourteen years old he became a sailor. For many years he sailed on all the seas and to many of the ports then known to the world and learned much about the management and care of ships.

When Columbus had passed middle life, he was tall, well-formed, muscular, with fair complexion, gray eyes, and white hair. He had thought much about the shape of the earth and was sure that he could sail around it if only he could get ships to go in and men to go with him.

Everybody at that time was talking about a sea-way to India. It was thought by many that a route to India could

be found by sailing around the south of Africa. Columbus was thinking of a different route. He believed that the earth was round, and he resolved some day to reach India by sailing westward. **A sea-way to India**

Marco Polo's book, though nearly two hundred years old at that time, made a deep impression on him. It is probable that he knew of all the writings of the wise men on the subject of geography, and of the shape of the earth, and had seen all the maps and charts of that day. At any rate, Columbus, who was then living in Lisbon, decided that if he sailed four or five thousand miles westward he would sail around the earth and come to India or China.

Columbus was too poor to undertake the voyage at his own expense. He went to John II, the king of Portugal, and unfolded his plans. The king was much impressed by the arguments he used and by the maps and charts he showed. He called a council of his wise men and laid the matter before them. The wise men, however, were not wise enough. They laughed at Columbus and called his plans foolish. **King John of Portugal**

One of them privately suggested to the king that he send a ship secretly the way Columbus proposed, to see whether what he said was true. If it was, then all the glory and all the riches would belong to the king and need not be divided with Columbus. The king was weak enough to adopt this suggestion and the ship was sent out. The sailors, however, went only a short distance and came back to report that there was no land to be found. When Columbus heard of this treachery, he was very indignant. He left Portugal and went to live in Spain.

He tried to get Ferdinand and Isabella, king and queen of Spain, to listen to his great plans, but they were engaged in

a costly war with the Moors, and had no funds with which to engage in so foolish an adventure.

Columbus was much discouraged. After six or seven years' wandering, he resolved to leave Spain as he had left Portugal, and gain assistance elsewhere. He took his little son; and set



COLUMBUS AND HIS SON IN THEIR WANDERINGS COME TO A CONVENT

out again on his wanderings. One day he came to a convent near the town of Palos and begged for a drink of water for his son, who was very tired and thirsty. The good monk asked him to rest awhile. As they talked, Columbus told him about his plan for sailing to Asia.

The monk was greatly interested. He told Columbus to

wait while he sent for a friend and for some merchants in the town to come and hear his plans. When they came, Columbus told them all about sailing across the great ocean, about the gold and jewels and great cities, and the heathen people to be converted.

The monk was so much impressed that he sent a special messenger to Ferdinand and Isabella, urging upon them the grandeur of the plans of Columbus, and begging them not to let the glory of so great a voyage be lost to Spain. By this time the Moors had been driven out of Spain. The country was rejoicing over the great victory, and the king and queen were prepared to listen to the plans of Columbus. Accordingly, he appeared at court, explained his ideas, and showed his charts. He was ridiculed by many of the learned men, but he boldly maintained that his plans were feasible. At last the queen was satisfied and agreed to help the bold adventurer, with her own money and jewels if it was necessary. She ordered everything made ready for the voyage.

Ferdinand
and Isabella

Isabella
agrees to help
Columbus

Thus after more than ten years of wandering and waiting, Columbus found the reward of his faith and patience. Cheered by the help of a queen who believed in him, he undertook the most famous voyage the world has ever known.

2. THE VOYAGES OF COLUMBUS

Columbus sailed from the port of Palos, Spain, **August 3, 1492**. He had three vessels, — the *Santa Maria*, on which was Columbus himself, the *Pinta*, and the *Niña*. On board the three vessels were ninety persons. On the day the ships sailed, the dock was crowded with sorrowing friends and

relatives, who saw the ships depart with little hope of ever seeing them again.

On the third day out, the *Pinta* broke her rudder, which made it necessary to sail to the Canary Islands, where three weeks passed in repairing the damage. The vessels then turned into the open and unknown sea.



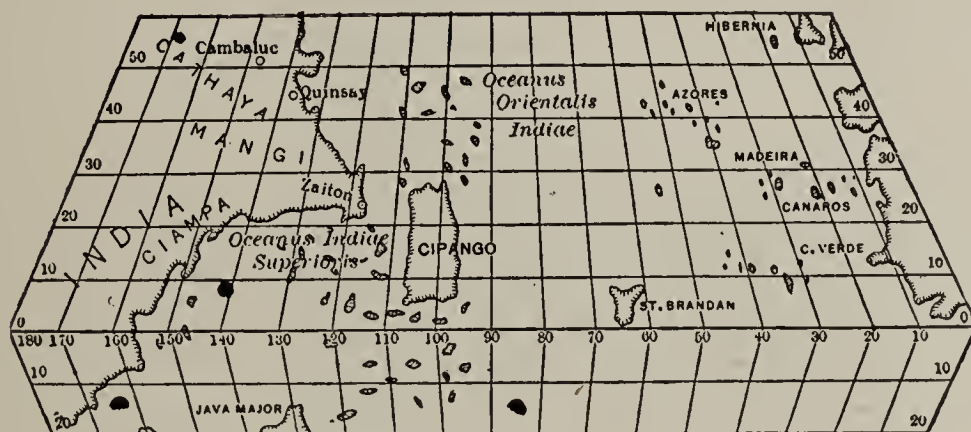
COLUMBUS SAILS FROM SPAIN IN 1492 AND LANDS ON THE ISLAND OF SAN SALVADOR

Columbus was sailing by a chart which he obtained from an Italian named Toscanelli. He thought he was sailing directly for Japan and India, which he supposed were only a few thousand miles away. He was not expecting to discover a new world.

The sailors were greatly alarmed at what they thought

was ahead of them. They believed they were going straight to destruction. Columbus did all he could to dispel their fears. He kept two reckonings of the distance traveled, one to show the sailors, which was much less than the real distance, and an accurate one for his own use.

After several weeks they caught sight of a flock of birds, and, from this, thought they must surely be near land. This cheered the sailors for a while, but no land appearing they grew more and more afraid. They wanted to turn back



TOSCANELLI'S MAP

and give up the foolish enterprise. But Columbus was calm and steady in his purpose, and kept straight on his course.

Days passed; the weather was delightful, the wind favorable, and the sea calm. Birds flew about the ship; green seaweed floated by, and the air was sweet and fragrant. At last almost sure signs of land appeared and everybody was greatly excited.

On the last night out not a soul slept. Columbus stood on deck and about ten o'clock saw a light in the distance and called attention to it. At two o'clock in the morning a gun from the *Pinta* announced that land was surely in sight. Joyfully the ships dropped anchor to wait for the coming of the day.

On Friday, October 12, 1492, Columbus and his men first saw the New World. When the day dawned, they saw before them a beautiful island, covered with trees. A strange people were seen running out of the woods and crowding down to the shore.

Columbus went ashore with some of his crew, and fell on his knees in prayer and thanksgiving. Rising, he drew his sword, displayed the banner of Spain, and solemnly took



COLUMBUS TAKES POSSESSION OF THE LAND

possession of the land in the name of the king. He called the land San Salvador. It was one of the small islands in the group of the Bahamas.

Thus Columbus, after more than two months on the

ocean, came to the shores of America, in spite of the doubts of wise men, the fears of his friends, and the mutterings of the sailors who went with him.

Columbus also discovered Haiti and Cuba, and several other islands. He was astonished at the curious people he **Discovers** saw, whom he called Indians, thinking he was **other islands** on the coast of India. He was delighted with the flowers, the birds, the fruits, and the fish found in abundance. The natives were friendly, and exchanged pieces of gold for beads and bits of cloth.

After nearly three months Columbus sailed back to Spain, taking with him some Indians, birds, plants, gold, and other things he found in the New World. He returned a hero.

Everywhere people crowded around him to welcome him, to kiss his hand, and to see the strange things he had brought from across the sea. Thus does the world admire the man who succeeds.

The king and queen received him at court, where he described his voyage and discoveries. He rode by the side of the royal pair and was given the title of Don. Everybody hastened to do honor to the great man, and many offered their services to go to the New World.

Three other voyages were made by Columbus to the New World. On the second voyage he founded a colony on the

island of Haiti.

On the third voyage he discovered the island of Trinidad on the coast of South America. On the fourth voyage he reached the coast of Central America. He was firm in the belief that he had found some part of Asia.



LANDS DISCOVERED BY COLUMBUS

Many Spaniards went with him on these voyages, seeking gold and jewels and the treasures of the East. But these adventurers would not work; they treated the Indians with great cruelty, found little gold, were taken sick with fever, and complained loudly of their treatment by Columbus.

The enemies of Columbus poisoned the minds of the king and queen against him. While on his third voyage some one was sent to inquire into the complaints of the colonists. The officers put him in chains, which made him very indignant. He said he would wear them

Last days of
Columbus

as a memento of the gratitude of princes, and he wished them to be buried with him. When he reached Spain his chains were taken off.

At length the good Isabella died, leaving him without a friend. Poor and neglected, he lived as best he could by borrowing from his friends. He died in Valladolid, Spain.¹ To the very last he did not know he had discovered a new world, but died in the belief that he had found a new way to India.

3. FINDING AND NAMING THE CONTINENT

The news of the discoveries of Columbus spread to all lands. Every nation that had ships on the seas was eager to imitate Spain.

About a year before Columbus made his third voyage, Henry VII, king of England, sent out an Italian sailor named John Cabot, who sailed westward in the spring of 1497. He also was seeking a new route to India to secure the spice trade for England.

After sailing many weeks he came to land, the mainland of our continent, somewhere in the neighborhood of Cape Breton Island, at the entrance of the Gulf of St. Lawrence. He took possession of the land in the name of the king of England. In this way the mainland of North America was discovered.

¹ Columbus was buried first at Valladolid. Seven years afterwards his body was removed to a monastery in Seville. Twenty-three years after that it was again removed, to the Cathedral of the city of Santo Domingo on the island of Haiti. In 1796 his remains were taken with great pomp and ceremony to the city of Havana and buried in the Cathedral at that place. After the war between the United States and Spain in 1898, his body was taken back to Spain and now rests in Seville.

The next year John Cabot explored the coast of North America all the way from Nova Scotia to North Carolina. He brought back wonderful accounts of the polar bears he had seen on the northern shores, and of the wonderful fruits and forests of the southern coast. But the king was not interested in icebergs, nor in the beauty of the southern coasts of the New World. Cabot had brought back no gold, and had not found a way to India. Accordingly, our mother country took little concern in further explorations in the newly discovered continent. In later years, however, and upon the explorations made by John Cabot,



JOHN CABOT IN 1497 COMES TO THE MAINLAND OF NORTH AMERICA AMID THE ICEBERGS AT THE ENTRANCE OF THE GULF OF ST. LAWRENCE

England laid claim to all the mainland of North America.

A few years after Cabot sailed along the shores of North America, a navigator named Americus Vespuccius was exploring the coasts of South America. When he went back to Europe he gave accounts of the strange customs of the people he had seen. He said the

Indians wore no clothes, had a reddish skin, and were of medium size. They were good swimmers and runners. They did not sleep in beds, but in hammocks among the trees.



SHIPS OF THE SIXTEENTH
CENTURY

He also boldly announced that the land which he had found was not India nor Asia, but was a new continent. Few people believed this to be true until Vespucci had made other voyages to various parts of South America, going as far down as Brazil, making charts of the coast, and bringing home descriptions of the birds and plants and many other things he had seen.

Vespucci was a great talker as well as writer. He boasted much of his travels, and people listened eagerly to his wonderful descriptions. In one of his letters he wrote: "I have found a continent more thickly inhabited by people and animals than are Europe, Asia, and Africa. It might properly be called a *new world*."

He told so many things to prove that this new land could not be a part of the Old World, that at last everybody believed what he said was true, and that a new continent had really been added to the knowledge of men.

Other maps were then drawn showing the new continent lying between Europe and Asia, across the Atlantic Ocean. Thereupon the geographers divided the world into four parts. Europe was one part, Asia was another, Africa was another, and the newly discovered country was the fourth part. When the maps were made, this fourth part was named America in honor of Americus, who first declared it was a new world.

A new world

America
named

4. DISCOVERING THE PACIFIC OCEAN

By this time many explorers had come to the shores of America, and explored much of the coast. All the world now recognized that a new continent had been discovered, but what it was like or how far it extended nobody as yet had any correct idea.

About ten years after Vespuccius had made his last voyage to South America, a bold Spaniard named Balboa was wrecked in a storm off the coast of Darien. He and his followers secured a quantity of gold from the ^{Balboa} Indians, and while they were quarreling over the division, an old chief was so disgusted that he struck the scales with his fist and told them if they would travel west over the tall mountains, they would find a great sea, and streams whose banks and beds were lined with gold.

Balboa and his men traveled through forests and across streams until they came to a range of high mountains. When

they neared the summit, Balboa was delighted to catch sight of the great ocean on the other side of the new continent. He marched down to the shore and took possession

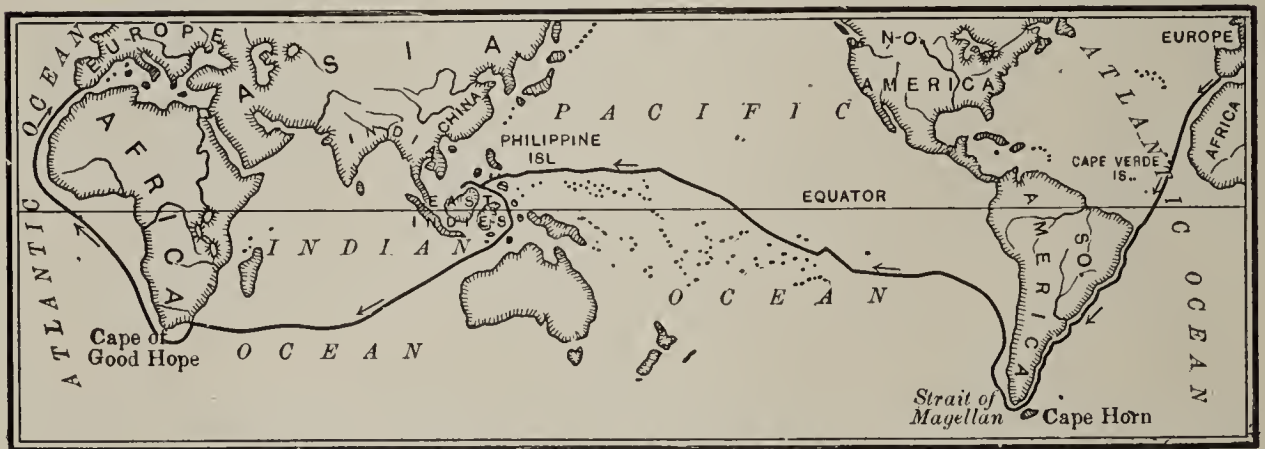


BALBOA CROSSES THE ISTHMUS OF DARIEN AND DISCOVERS THE PACIFIC OCEAN IN 1513

of the ocean and all its islands in the name of the king of Spain. He found no gold, but he did find a great sea.

In this way Balboa discovered the Pacific Ocean in 1513, being the first European to set his eyes upon its vast surface. However, Balboa did not know he had discovered a great ocean. He called it the South Sea.

Ferdinand Magellan undertook to explore the coasts of South America which Vespuccius had visited, to find out what was at the end of the great body of land, to go around it, and, if possible, to sail around the world. He started from Spain with five ships and nearly three hundred men.



THE FIRST VOYAGE AROUND THE WORLD

After losing one ship in a storm, and spending weary weeks along the rocky coast, the voyagers came to the straits that are now called Magellan, in honor of the explorer. **Adventures of Magellan** After five weeks' sailing they found themselves on the broad bosom of a great ocean. Its calm waters delighted Magellan so much that he named the ocean Pacific, which means peaceful.

Magellan with his four remaining vessels sailed westward, not knowing how far he would have to go, nor what he would find, but knowing that he was on his way to Asia, and around the world. It was a long, distressing voyage. Food gave out, the water became foul, the sun blistered the decks, and many of the sailors died, but Magellan refused to turn back.

At length they reached the Philippine Islands, which the Spaniards claimed for the king of Spain. Here the brave Magellan was killed in a fight with the natives, who pierced him through with spears and arrows. His followers then resumed their voyage.

Three other ships were lost or abandoned. One ship only completed the voyage across the Pacific, around Africa, and back to Spain. Of all the five ships and three hundred men, only one small vessel and eighteen men returned after a voyage of three years. This was from 1519 to 1522.

Sixty years after Magellan had made his voyage, Francis Drake, an Englishman, made the same passage along the coast of Brazil, through the Straits of Magellan, Francis and along the western shores of South America. Drake

He was a pirate as well as a voyager and took rich toll of the Spanish ships whenever he met them. He entered the bay which now makes the harbor of San Francisco and landed. Seeing the strange ships and the faces of white men, the Indians worshiped him and his men as gods. He then crossed the Pacific Ocean and returned to England, being the first Englishman to sail around the world. He afterwards became a famous admiral in the service of Queen Elizabeth.

5. THE INDIANS

It is time for us to learn something about the people the explorers found in America, whom Columbus called Indians, and who are still called by that name.

It is not at all certain where they came from, when they came, or how they ever reached these shores. We can only suppose that, at some past time, a few The origin of people from Asia may have crossed Behring the Indians Strait and wandered southward, or that some adventurous

ship may have been blown across the Pacific Ocean. In some such way the Indians of America may have originated.

The Indians had skin of a reddish-brown or copper color. Most of them were tall, erect, muscular, and capable of great endurance. The eyes of the Indians were small and black. Their cheek-bones were high and prominent. Their hair was coarse, black, and straight.



THE INDIANS GENERALLY LIVED IN SMALL VILLAGES

The women wore their hair long, but the men cut theirs short, except a tuft on the top which was called the "scalp lock." The scalp lock was left for an enemy to grip if he could get it, and by means of it to pull off the scalp as a trophy of battle.

The Indians were not inclined to talk much, but were reserved and dignified, not apt to provoke a quarrel, but revengeful and treacherous when aroused.

They wore but little clothing when the weather was warm.

In winter they sometimes had clothes of soft deerskin. Often these skins were braided with quills and colored with paint. Still the Indian boasted of not being cold, even **Their** in severe weather. When asked why he did not **clothing** wear more clothes, he would point to the exposed face of the white man and say that the Indian was face all over.

On his feet he wore soft skin shoes called moccasins, which were very comfortable. It is said that the Indian moccasin is the most comfortable as well as the warmest covering for the feet that is known.

The women did all the hard work. They had to plant corn and tobacco. They made the deerskin clothes. They kindled the fire by rubbing two sticks together. **The women** They took down the tents, moved the household goods, and carried the babies or papooses in a pack on their backs.

While the women were at work, the men sat by the fire and smoked, made arrow heads and spear points out of pieces of flint, or made bows and spears out of the strong wood from the forest.

There were only a few hundred thousand Indians in all. They lived in various tribes all over the continent of North America.

The Algonquin tribes lived along the Atlantic coast from Nova Scotia to Virginia. It was mainly the Algonquin Indians that the first settlers met. The Iro- **The tribes** quois lived for the most part in what is now the State of New York. The Cherokees, Creeks, and Natchez lived in the south and along the Gulf of Mexico. The Aztecs in Mexico were the most advanced of all the tribes and had developed a fair degree of civilization.

The Pueblo tribes lived in Arizona and New Mexico.

Their houses were built of sun-dried bricks and were often very large. These Indians made a fine kind of pottery, wove blankets, planted crops, and were a better class of Indians than those along the Atlantic seaboard.

The Indians generally lived in small villages. Their houses or huts, which they called wigwams, were made of

Their
wigwams

the bark of trees, with a covering of grass, or were mere tents covered with skins. A fire was

built on the ground in the center of the wigwam, over which



INDIANS MAKING A CANOE

the squaws cooked the food, and the smoke was left to escape through a hole at the top. A bed of grass or skins was made in a corner for the family to sleep on. They never thought of keep-

ing anything clean, so there was always plenty of dirt and smoke and foul odors.

The Indians were skilled in many things. They knew how to make a kind of rude pottery of clay, which they colored according to the traditions of their various tribes. In this they cooked their food, carried water to drink, and kept tobacco. They knew how to weave grass into mats, and later on learned to make warm blankets for the winter.

The Indian was skilled in woodcraft. He knew the habits of all the animals and birds he used for food. He knew how to stalk the deer, to trap the beaver, to catch the fox, and to net the wild fowl. He could find his way through the densest forests by examining the trees. He could follow the path of a wild animal or of a foe when the white man

could see nothing. He could hear the approach of an enemy or of game when all was silence to the white man's ears.

In fact, the Indian was a simple child of the woods, knowing by experience all the secrets of the forest and streams, fond of sports of all sorts, but not fond of hard work or of living long in one place. He had no ambition except to supply his daily wants, he knew no law except his own will or the word of his chief, and desired nothing except to be let alone.

The Indians were often in a state of warfare. The many tribes of Indians were constantly at war with one another. When the white settlers began to establish homes in America, the Indian wars were frequent and often disastrous.

The weapons of the Indians were bows and arrows, wonderfully made, with which they could shoot as straight and effectively as with a gun. It is said an Indian could send an arrow through a buffalo, and that with the animal in full flight. They also used the tomahawk, a hatchet made of stone, with which they dealt terrible blows in close conflict.

Before going to war, the Indians colored their faces with war paint, dressed themselves with bonnets, in which eagle feathers were stuck, and in leather trousers **Indian** curiously embroidered and painted. They gave **warfare** a great dance around a big fire in the village, beating their rude drums, dancing wildly, throwing their tomahawks, and boasting of what they were going to do. The dance often lasted all night, and was meant to please the spirit that could help them in war.

When the time came to march, however, they were as still as panthers. They crept in single file through the forests, each man stepping in the footprints of the one in front of him, never making a sound nor cracking a twig. Their

instinct guided them through the woods. They never lost their way. Silently they approached the place of attack, and before their enemies were aware of their presence, they raised the terrible war whoop, and burst upon the foe with tomahawk and firebrand.

Their fallen foes were scalped, and the scalp locks hung as trophies to the belt of the victor. Their prisoners were sometimes made slaves, sometimes adopted into the tribe, but often were cruelly tortured to death. A captured Indian never showed any fear. He never begged for mercy, nor uttered any cry, even when being burned alive. His greatest glory was to die at the stake with a smile upon his face and taunting words upon his lips.

The Indians had a vague notion of a Great Spirit which they worshiped as a being all-powerful and all-wise. Their **Indian** notion of heaven was a happy hunting ground, **religion** where brave warriors who had killed many enemies would go to hunt and fish forever. When an Indian died, his dog, his bow and arrows, and anything he needed in the chase, were buried with him.¹

The Indians believed in spirits, and thought that plants, brooks, winds, rain, and indeed everything in nature contained a spirit, good or evil. Evil spirits caused all the sickness, trouble, and death; calamity followed their anger, and success and happiness attended their good-will. Those men in the tribe who were supposed to drive away evil spirits were called the medicine men. Their idea generally was to cure

¹ Throughout the Mississippi Valley may be found many mounds of earth, sometimes shaped like serpents or animals. These Indian mounds are supposed to be burial places, sites for temples, or memorials of victory. They are very curious and interesting. When opened, these mounds are often found to contain Indian relics, such as spear heads, pottery, and bones.

sickness by beating a drum, howling and dancing and making as much noise as possible to scare away the evil spirit.

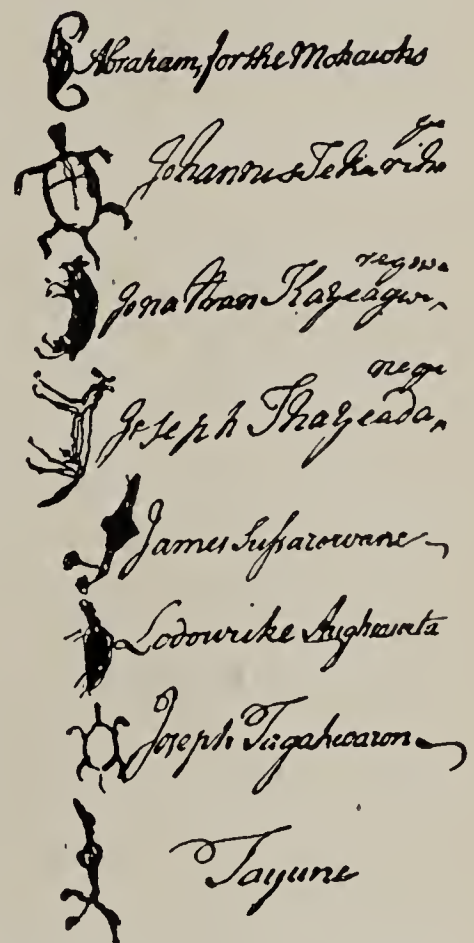
The medicine men were great leaders among the Indians and were consulted on all occasions. Sometimes they used simple remedies of the woods for ordinary diseases, but when these were administered there was a great ceremony of driving away the evil spirit from the wigwam of the sick man.

Many treaties were made by the white men with the Indians from time to time. These treaties were often signed in a curious way, as with a belt made of shell beads called wampum, showing two figures clasping hands. Wampum was also used for money. Often these treaties were sacredly observed.

The Indian taught the white man many things. He taught him how to raise corn. He also showed him how to kill trees by girdling them and so making a sunny

field for the grain to ripen in. He taught him the use of the tomato and of the potato, and how to raise and smoke tobacco. From the Indians we first learned of the turkey, and of such things as cocoa and mahogany, and of many plants used for medicine.

It has taken the white men many generations to drive the Indians away from their hunting grounds. Little by little their lands have been bought. They have been pushed farther



HOW THE INDIANS SIGNED THEIR NAMES TO A TREATY

Treaties

What the Indians taught the whites

and farther west. The tribes are now kept on lands called "reservations," and are not allowed to leave them without permission.

As a race they have never been fully civilized, though many live in houses and cultivate the fields as white men do. Even these sadly tell to their children the story of the times when their ancestors roamed wild and free over the whole land.

TOPICS

The Story of Columbus. Place and date of birth; his education; his early adventures; his appearance in middle life. Sea-ways to India. What Columbus believed; the books he had read; his decision; his appeal to King John; the action of the king. His appeal to Ferdinand and Isabella. Discouragement and wanderings. The monk's kindness. The second appeal to Ferdinand and Isabella.

The Voyage of Columbus. Port and date of sailing; name of vessels; number of persons. Delay by accident. Sailing by chart. Alarming the sailors; dispelling their fears. Hopes and disappointments. Courage of Columbus. The weather. The discovery of land. The landing; taking possession. Naming the land. The islands discovered. The Indians. The return to Spain. Honors paid him. Three other voyages. Action of adventurers. Enemies of Columbus. His last days. Death and burial.

Finding and Naming the Continent. John Cabot; discovering the mainland; further exploration. Wonderful accounts. Indifference of mother country. Foundation of English claim to America. Americus Vesputius. Accounts of the Indians. Vesputius' opinion of the land. His other voyages. What he wrote of the continent. New maps of the world. Naming the new continent.

Discovering the Pacific Ocean. Balboa; searching for gold; finding the ocean. Date of discovery. First name of the ocean. Undertaking of Magellan; his ships and men. The Straits of Magellan. Naming the ocean. Hardships of Magellan and his men. Fate of Magellan. Completing the voyage. Voyage of Francis Drake; extent of voyage; later life.

Discovering and Exploring the New World 49

The Indians. Origin of North American Indians. Color; appearance; eyes; cheek-bones; hair; scalp lock. Their clothing; their indifference to cold; moccasins. The work of the women. The occupations of the men. Numbers and distribution. The Algonquins; the Iroquois; Cherokees, Creeks, and Natchez; the Aztecs. The Pueblo tribes; their houses; their mode of living. Wigwams. Indian pottery. Indian woodcraft; Indian weapons. Preparing for war; on the march; treatment of foes and prisoners. Endurance of torture. Indian religion. Medicine men. Treaties. Wampum. What the Indians taught the white men. Present condition.

SUBJECTS FOR STUDY

What were some of the traits of character that made Columbus succeed in his undertaking? Why was he so badly treated in his old age? Should the New World have been named for him or not? Compare sea voyages in those days with those of the present time. Why has it been so difficult to civilize the Indians?

COMPOSITION

Imagine yourself a sailor on board the vessel of Columbus, and write a description of the voyage.

Write a letter from John Cabot to the king of England, describing his adventures along the coast of North America.

Write a description of the house you would live in, the food you would eat, and the things you would know if you were an Indian.

MAP STUDIES

Locate Genoa; Palos. Trace the voyages of Columbus. Locate the lands explored. Where is Cape Breton? Where did Balboa first see the Pacific Ocean? Locate the Straits of Magellan; the Philippine Islands.

Collateral Reading. "Columbus," by Joaquin Miller. Selections from "Hiawatha," by Longfellow.

CHAPTER III

EARLY COLONIES IN THE NEW WORLD

1. THE SPANIARDS SETTLE FLORIDA

At this time in the history of the world Spain was a powerful and aggressive nation. She was easily the leading power **The Spanish** at sea, and in wealth and enterprise she also led all **explorers** the nations of the world. For many years after the discovery of America she had undisputed sway in the new world, and sent explorers and founders to establish her claim to the territory. But her motives were not worthy ones. Her explorers were bent on finding gold and did not hesitate to enslave or destroy the Indians in their mad eagerness for wealth. The whole story of their conquest and occupation is one of greed, oppression, and folly.

The Spaniards who came over with Columbus settled in Cuba, Porto Rico, and other islands of the West Indies, holding their possessions in spite of many difficulties. Every now and then some explorer bolder than the others would venture to the mainland looking for gold and precious stones, or bent upon mere adventure, but the deep swamps, dense forests, and the savages kept him from going far into the continent.

On the island of Porto Rico lived the governor named Ponce **Ponce de** de Leon. There were two things he greatly **Leon** desired: one was to regain his youth, the other was to be famous. He had heard from the Indians that on a neighboring island there was a fountain in which if one bathed,

old age and white hairs would fall away and youth and black locks would come in their stead. He was about fifty-three years of age.

Straightway the foolish and superstitious man sailed west in search of the fountain of youth. On Easter Sunday, 1513, he came in sight of land, beautiful land, with flowers blooming, and woods bright with birds and sweet with perfume of orange flowers. He called the land Florida, from *pascua florida*, which in Spanish means Easter.

For nearly a year Ponce de Leon wandered up and down looking for the fountain of youth. In 1521 he again came to Florida, this time to establish a colony. In a battle with the Indians he was wounded with an arrow. He was taken to Cuba, where he died of his wound.



PONCE DE LEON NAMES FLORIDA IN 1513 AND THEN EXPLORES IT IN SEARCH OF THE FOUNTAIN OF YOUTH

He was the first Spaniard that ever traveled inland on the territory now a part of the United States. While De Leon was exploring Florida, and Magellan was on his voyage around the world, a Spanish soldier named Cortez marched

with an army through Mexico, and captured the City of Mexico. It was a beautiful country he found, a land of fine roads, good houses, splendid temples of worship, and treasure houses full of gold. The story of the conquest of Mexico was like a fairy tale of the olden time, and when the Spaniards in Europe heard about the gold that Cortez had found their excitement was intense.

About twenty-five years after the naming of Florida, and the conquest of Mexico, the governor of Cuba, Hernando de Soto, resolved to try his fortune in this strange land. Like all the rest he also wanted gold. Six hundred men joined him. They landed in Tampa Bay on the west coast of Florida, and traveled north. The country was full of swamps and thickets. Many of the Spaniards were ill with fever, all suffered for food, and many were exhausted by the hard marches.

De Soto and his men crossed what is now Georgia, Alabama, and Mississippi. They robbed the Indians of their food, made slaves of them, and compelled them to carry provisions for use on the march. At one place De Soto took captive an Indian princess and compelled her to accompany him several hundred miles. Still he found no gold, nor silver, nor precious stones.

After many weary weeks, the Spaniards came to a great river. They asked the Indians the name of the noble stream, and the reply was "Mississippi," which means Father of Waters. De Soto and his followers were probably the first white men to gaze upon this lordly current. They had reached a spot near the present city of Memphis.

Crossing the river, the Spaniards hunted for gold in the territory that is now the States of Missouri and Arkansas, but were disappointed as usual. De Soto returned to the Mis-

Mississippi, and was seized with a fever. His followers laid him on a cot under a tree, where he died (1542). His body was taken by night to the middle of the great river, weighted with stones, and sunk to the bottom. Into the keeping of the mighty stream was given the body of the explorer who in all probability was the first white man to gaze upon its waters.

Other Spanish explorers had adventures in America, some landing along the coast, others going far into the interior, and penetrating into the Far West.

At the time that De Soto was on his march through the tangled forests of the Mississippi Valley, Francisco Coronado set out from Mexico to find the seven cities of **Francisco Cibola**, which were fabled cities of the New World **Coronado** supposed to contain vast riches in gold and jewels. He traveled north for many weary weeks, possibly as far as Kansas or Nebraska of the present day, but he found only unfriendly Indians and vast stretches of rich uncultivated plains.

As years passed, the land gradually became known to the Spaniards. In 1565, St. Augustine in Florida was settled. It is the oldest town in the United States, and still preserves many of the original narrow streets. Twenty years after that, Santa Fé in the Far West was founded.

2. THE FRENCH SETTLE CANADA

The riches of the New World, especially from Mexico and Peru, that had poured into the treasury of Spain were rapidly consumed by her wars at home. Her do- **The rise of**
 minion was much more extensive than at the pres- **France and**
 ent day, but her vast possessions brought only **England**
 wars and weakness. France and England were rapidly ris-
 ing in power and importance, and were challenging Spain at

every point. The French king, Francis I, indignantly declared, "The king of Spain wages war with me with the riches he draws from the West Indies alone. Henceforth, I shall feel free to seize all the lands I can get in America." Therefore, France turned her attention to settlements in America.



CHAMPLAIN SAILS UP THE ST. LAWRENCE RIVER IN 1608 AND SELECTS A SITE FOR THE CITY OF QUEBEC

The French explorers, led by Verrazano, an Italian in the service of France, sailed along the coast of America, from North Carolina to Newfoundland, 1524, probably entering New York Bay and Narragansett Bay.

Jacques Cartier, a Frenchman, sailed up a river, which he named the St. Lawrence, seeking for a place to plant a colony. The river grew so narrow and the sailors suffered so much for food, that, after seeing a mountain, which he named Montreal, he gave up the attempt. Several years later he planted a colony in Canada, on the site of Quebec, but it was not successful.



THE FIRST WINTER AT QUEBEC WAS A HARD ONE

Nearly seventy-five years passed before France resumed her activities in the New World. Then, Samuel de Champlain, a French soldier, sailed along the shores of New England, explored the harbors, and made maps of the coast line. Many of the names that he gave to places along the coast have been retained to the present day. In 1608 he sailed up the St. Lawrence River and founded the town of Quebec.

He pushed his journeys far up the river, into the Great Lakes themselves, and was the first white man to visit that beautiful sheet of water that is called Lake Champlain, in

honor of its discoverer. He crossed Lake Huron and Lake Ontario, and in spite of many hardships penetrated deep into the heart of the northern woods.

The colony at Quebec had a hard struggle for life. The first winter was a terrible one. Snow and ice covered the rude cabins, food was almost exhausted, and nearly every one was sick. Of the twenty-eight who formed the colony, all died but eight. Others came the next year, however, and Champlain did all he could to keep up the spirits and hope of the people.

The Indians had never seen white men before, and believed they possessed very wonderful powers. Their armor which could not be pierced by arrows, and their guns which made so loud a noise were objects of great mystery.

The friendly Algonquins and Hurons asked Champlain to join them in their war against the Iroquois. Champlain agreed to join the war party. A great war dance was held in Quebec. The boats then went up the river, and afterwards the men went overland until they came near the village of their enemies. The Iroquois were ready to receive them.

Champlain and his few soldiers, who were in front, displayed their polished armor and white skins. Their loud guns blazed forth, bringing down an Indian at each shot. The Iroquois, though in large numbers, were so astonished at these heavenly warriors whom no arrows could pierce, and who hurled lightning and thunder with such deadly aim, that they fled in terror, leaving everything behind.

The victory was complete. Fear did more damage than the guns. The Iroquois henceforth were the fiercest enemies of the white men in the north.

Champlain lived in Quebec for many years. The town

struggled on, after twenty years having no more than one hundred and five persons in all. However, it has grown into a great city. Its foundation established the French people in Canada, and gave a distinct French tone to much of the northeastern part of America.

The Spaniards had occupied the southern part, the French the northern part, and now we shall see that the English came and took possession of all that lay between.

All this time England was fast becoming a great nation, rapidly increasing in prosperity and wealth. Agriculture was improved, and manufactures were increased, especially in the making of cloth. English commerce was extending to all parts of the world. When Antwerp in Belgium was almost destroyed by the wars between the Dutch and the Spaniards many of the merchants and manufacturers of that town came to England. The result was that London became the greatest trading center in the world.

The growth
of England

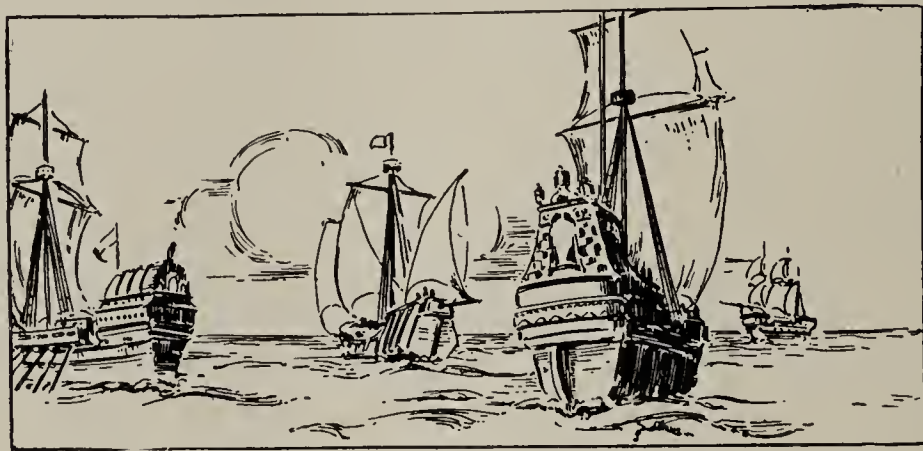
Elizabeth was now queen of England (1558-1603). Under her energetic rule English ships appeared on all seas, and English merchants and sailors became the most daring and skillful in the world. Their enterprising captains did not hesitate to attack and plunder Spanish ships in the waters of the New World, and seize the treasures with which they were laden. Philip, king of Spain, angered at the repeated attacks of Drake and other English sea captains on the Spanish treasure ships, prepared for war on England.

A great fleet called the "Spanish Armada" set sail for the English shores (1588). The English fleet was ready for them. The English vessels were of lighter build and swifter movement and were commanded by the best seamen of the times. The Armada sailed up the English Channel closely pursued by the English fleet. At Calais the

The Spanish
Armada

Spanish fleet anchored to take on an army. The English captains set burning ships afloat that, drifting among the Spanish ships, so alarmed the Spaniards that they cut their cables and sailed out to sea in a panic of fear.

After an all-day fight the Armada sailed north, and was overwhelmed in a terrific storm that dashed many of the boats to pieces on the shores of Scotland and Ireland. An English officer reported that he counted a thousand Spanish corpses



THE SPANISH ARMADA SET SAIL FOR ENGLAND IN 1588

on a five-mile space on the coast. Only half the great fleet of Spain returned home. From this time on Spain no longer was a power to be dreaded and England became the mistress of the seas.

3. THE ENGLISH SETTLE VIRGINIA

Sir Walter Raleigh was one of the favorite courtiers of Queen Elizabeth of England. One of his plans was to establish a colony in America. He secured the patent or right from the queen to make a settlement somewhere in her domains in America. He sent ships to explore the shores and look for a place to found a colony. The sailors brought back glowing accounts of the richness and the beauty of the country. In honor of Elizabeth, who was a

virgin, or unmarried, queen, the whole country from Canada to Florida was named Virginia.

Plans were at once made to send over colonists. Raleigh himself did not go, but he sent one hundred persons, with Ralph Lane as governor, who in 1585 made a settlement on Roanoke Island, on the coast of the present State of North Carolina. Raleigh's first colony

The colonists, however, were not willing to work. They were idle and lazy, and would rather wander about looking for gold and silver than raise corn and vegetables for food. They came near starving, and would have done so if Sir Francis Drake, who had been fighting the Spaniards in the West Indies, had not come along to see how they were prospering.

He found the settlers in such a bad condition, and so homesick for their native land, that he took them back to England with him.

These colonists, however, brought home some valuable information to the people of England. They explained the use of Indian corn, and how it was ground into meal and made into bread. They also brought home the potato, which Raleigh planted on one of his farms in Ireland. The potato grew so well and was so good for food that it has since been called the Irish potato, and is now the main article of food of the people of Ireland.

The greatest interest was taken in the tobacco which the colonists brought back. The courtiers, and even the queen, were persuaded to smoke. Sir Walter himself learned to smoke, and liked tobacco very much. As he sat in his room one day, smoking his pipe, his servant entered with a pitcher of ale, which he emptied on Sir Walter's head, thinking he was on fire.

Raleigh sent out other colonists in 1587 with John White as governor. They also settled at Roanoke, and set to work **Raleigh's second colony** to rebuild the houses left by the other colony two years before. Governor White's daughter, Mrs. Dare, was one of the company. Soon after they landed, a girl was born to her, who was named Virginia Dare. She was the first white child born of English parents in what is now the United States. Governor White stayed a little while, saw the colony well started, and then went back to England to get more supplies.

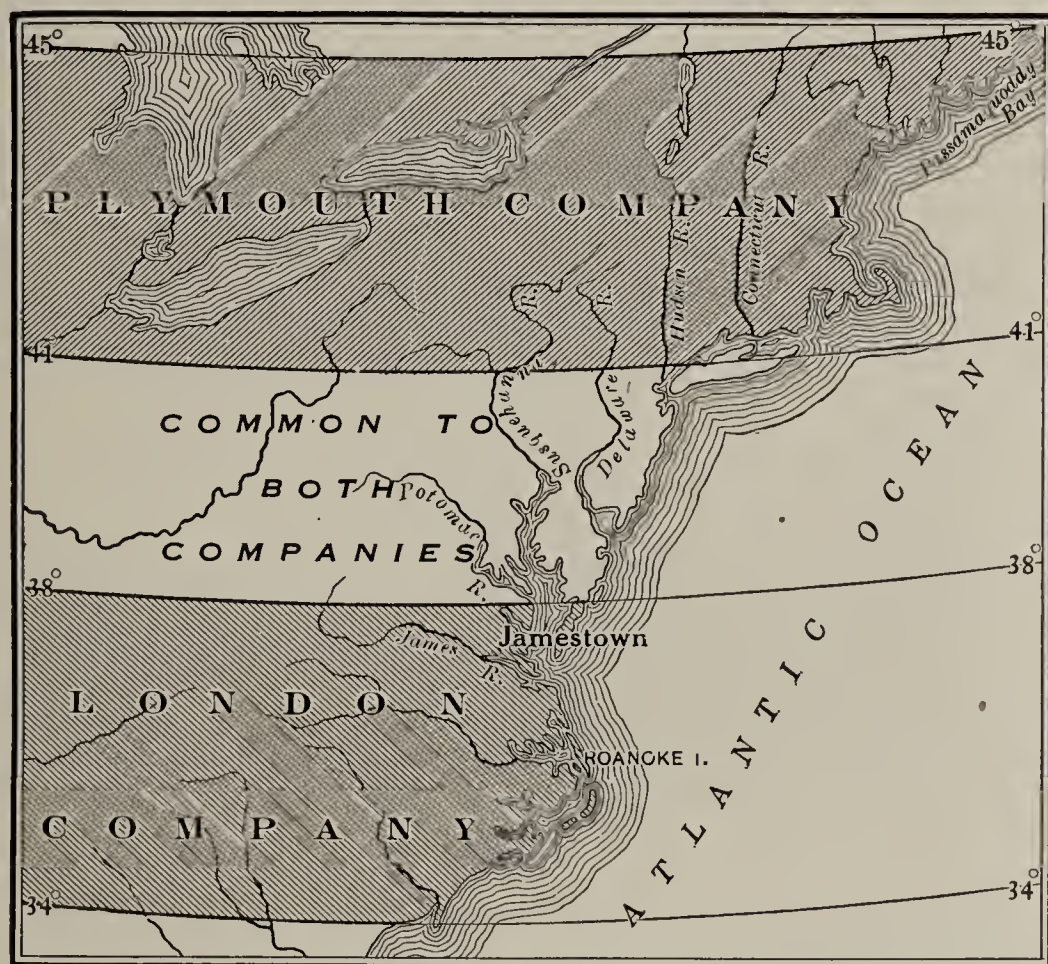
It was three years before Governor White returned. A war between England and Spain had been going on, and **The lost colony** nobody had time to think about a poor little colony in America. When the war was over, Governor White set out to find his colonists, but not a trace of them could be found. The houses were abandoned, and the fields were overgrown, but no signs of massacre or violence were seen. The colonists had disappeared, and to this day no man knows what became of them. For this reason the colony is known as the lost colony.

After Raleigh's colony failed, it was a number of years before the English again tried to make a settlement in America. Fishing vessels, however, plied back and forth between the **Trade with the New World** New World and the Old. Cargoes of furs were bought from the Indian traders and hunters. Rich woods, dyestuffs, and valuable plants used for medicine were brought from the shores of America.

All this trade induced wealthy and influential merchants of England to form companies for colonizing the territory claimed **English companies** by the Crown. Two companies were formed, granted charters by the government, and all the land of Virginia divided between them. One of these com-

panies was called The London Company and the other The Plymouth Company.

The London Company made haste to dispatch a body of colonists to that part of the land for which they had a grant. One cold day in **December, 1606**, three small ships sailed from England, with one hundred and five persons on board,



TERRITORY OF THE PLYMOUTH AND LONDON COMPANIES

bound for the New World. The orders for the government of the colony were put into a box and sealed, not to be opened until the ships reached America.

It took these ships six weeks to get out of sight of England, on account of the bad weather and the smallness of the vessels. They sailed by the way of the Canary Islands and the West Indies to avoid the heavy cold seas of winter.

After a four months' voyage the colonists came to shores they did not recognize. A storm drove them into the mouth of a large river, up which they sailed. They were greatly charmed with the appearance of the country. It was now early spring, the birds were singing in the trees, flowers were beginning to bloom, the forests were green, and the land looked very welcome after the tedious ocean voyage. The river they named the James River, after James I, then king of England.

On the 13th day of May, 1607, the colonists landed forty miles from the mouth of the river, at a place which seemed suitable for a town. Here the first permanent English colony in America was established, and called Jamestown.

Every man set to work. Trees were cut down, tents were pitched, a fort was built, and spaces cleared for gardens. Trouble, however, came on the colonists thick and fast. The food supply, as usual, had been eaten too freely. Soon it was nearly all gone, and there was not time to raise a crop. The Indians were showing hostility. In fact, they attacked the town while the men were at work, killing seventeen men and one boy.

The water was impure and gave the colonists fever. The heat of the climate soon became so intense that the men refused to work on their houses or on their little farms. The tents became rotten and torn. The colonists, like most of the others who had come over, were idle and little inclined to hard work. The result was that during the first summer fifty of them died, some of sickness, some by the hands of the Indians, and some for want of sufficient food. The prospect was discouraging. Everybody was in despair and anxious to return to England.

4. THE PROGRESS OF JAMESTOWN

The settlement at Jamestown owed much to Captain John Smith, who had come over with the colonists. He now took charge and compelled every man to work. **Captain Smith takes charge** "Those who do not work shall not eat," were his orders, and the lazy ones had to labor or starve. He drilled the garrison, strengthened the fort, mapped out the country,



THE INDIANS CAPTURE JOHN SMITH

sent letters to England for supplies, and received new colonists as they came over.

He was a high-tempered man, getting into many quarrels and having many marvelous adventures, accounts of which he wrote in a book. It is not certain that we can believe all he wrote about himself, but it is true **His character** that he was a brave man, who more than once saved the colony from destruction.

He relates that on one of his trips into the Indian country

he was taken prisoner, but not before he had slain two Indians with his pistol. The Indians made ready to put him to death, but he took out his pocket compass and showed them the trembling needle, which they could see but could not touch on account of the glass case. This so interested the savages that the warriors marched him to their village.

The Indians had condemned the brave captain to death, and the day came at last for his execution. The chief was **Pocahontas** called Powhatan. He sat before the fire in his **saves his life** tent, clothed in a robe made of raccoon skins. Around him sat the squaws. The grim warriors stood with their faces, arms, and necks painted red, and with chains of



POCAHONTAS BEGS HER FATHER TO SPARE THE LIFE OF JOHN SMITH

shell beads around their necks. Two big stones were brought and put in front of Powhatan. Smith was led in, and his head was laid on the stones.

The warriors seized their clubs, and stood awaiting the sign from Powhatan to dash out the brains of their captive. Pocahontas, the twelve-year-old daughter of the chief, in a moment of tenderness rushed up and knelt down by the prisoner, taking his head in her arms and begging her father

to spare his life. The old chief, who loved his beautiful young daughter, consented. Smith was released and sent back to Jamestown, very much to his own relief and to the joy of his friends.

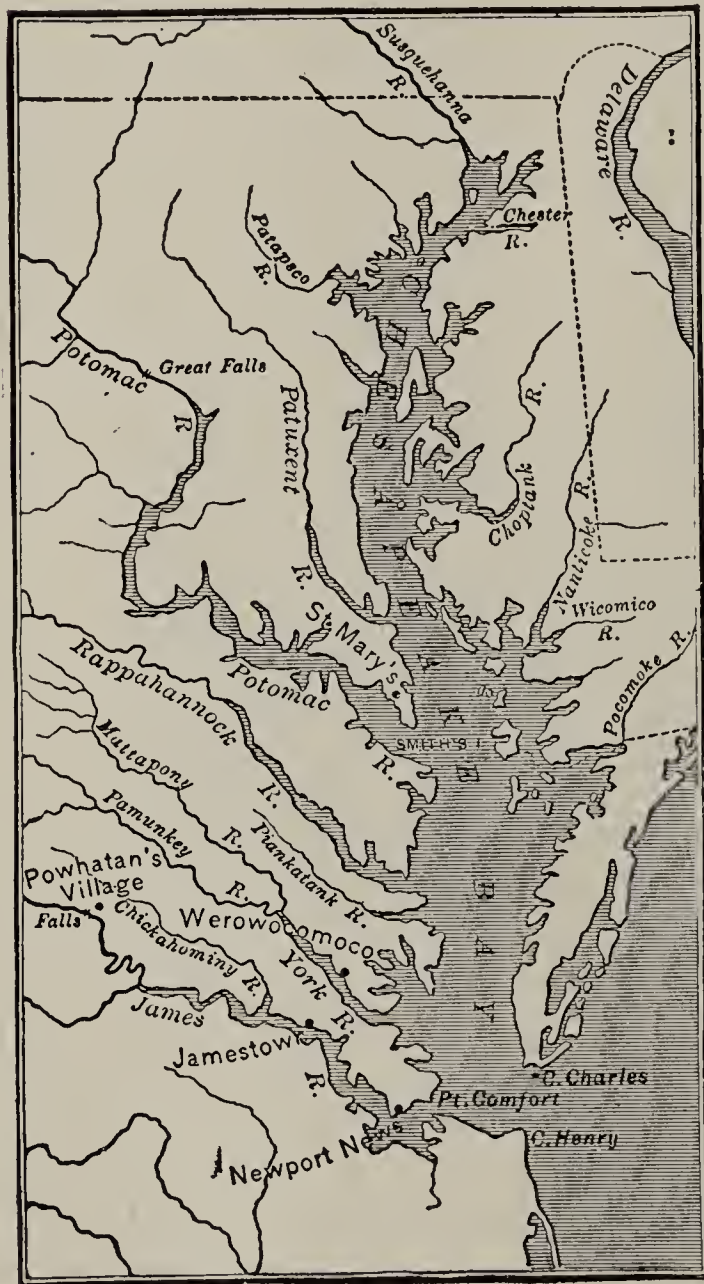
From this time on Pocahontas was the true friend of the white men. After a while she married a young Englishman named John Rolfe. Before her marriage she **Marries** became a Christian and was given the name of Re- **John Rolfe**becca. She went to England and was received at court with much favor and consideration. Her gentle manners won the hearts of every one.

Her husband decided to go back to Jamestown. Just as the ship was ready to start, Pocahontas was taken ill and died, leaving one young son. Pocahontas was buried in England, mourned by all who knew her. Many families in Virginia today are proud to claim their descent from this brave and gentle Indian girl.

John Smith left the colony and returned to England. At the time of his departure there were about five hundred people in Jamestown. Not having his strong hand to guide and control the colony, troubles quickly arose. The men became idle and planted no crops. The Indians grew suspicious and would not sell corn or any kind of food. The natural result followed. The colonists were reduced to starvation.

The starving people ate everything they could lay their hands on. They even ate their own dogs, horses, and such things as mice, snakes, and lizards. The Indians **“The Starv-** watched for wanderers from the colony to kill **ing Time”** them in the woods. By the end of the winter only sixty of all the five hundred colonists were left alive. The others had perished. This was known as the “Starving Time” (1609).

Another shipload of people, however, was on the way to Jamestown, with Sir Thomas Gates, a new governor for the Sir Thomas colony. These colonists had been shipwrecked and had taken refuge on one of the Bermuda Islands, where they had spent the winter. As soon as spring came they made new ships and started for Jamestown.



POWHTAN'S COUNTRY

It was well they did, for when they arrived they found the colonists almost perishing for food, and piteously waiting to be fed and taken away from that dreadful place. If Gates had been ten days later, not a man would have been left alive in Jamestown.

Gates himself had food for only two weeks more, and in this desperate condition he decided to take the colonists on board, abandon the town, and sail to Newfoundland, hoping to fall in with some fishing and trading vessels. The people of Jamestown were glad enough to go, and so they departed with

Gates, leaving not a soul on the shores of America to claim an English settlement.

When they reached the mouth of the James River they were met by a fleet of vessels from the mother country, bringing new colonists and plenty of food. Then there was great rejoicing. This was better than going to Newfoundland. Lord Delaware was with the new fleet, as governor of the colony. He took the colonists back to Jamestown, gave thanks for their deliverance, and soundly scolded them for their idleness and lack of foresight, which had brought them into such a miserable plight.

With Lord Delaware, and those who succeeded him, the colonists fared better. Every man was given a small farm and made to cultivate it for his own use. Houses were built, new settlements were made up and down the river, and every year people came from England.

The colonists now (1612) turned their attention to the planting of tobacco. It is said that John Rolfe, the husband of Pocahontas, was the first white man to grow it for sale. The people of England had grown fond of smoking, and there was a demand for tobacco. When the people in Jamestown found they could sell all the tobacco they could raise, they began to plant large quantities of it.

From that time they began to prosper. Nearly everybody became a tobacco planter. Tobacco was growing everywhere, even in the streets of the town. With the money from the sale of it, the colonists bought many things they needed. Vessels came up the river to sell supplies and to buy tobacco. Taxes were paid in tobacco. Salaries were paid in tobacco. At last the people had found an occupation and were content.

One thing more was needed, and that was wives. There were too many men and too few women in the colony. The company in London knew that the settlers would never be

content without homes and women to take care of them. Accordingly, a shipload of young women, of good character and health, was sent over to Jamestown. Each young woman was to choose her husband, who must pay one hundred and twenty pounds of tobacco, to cover the cost of the passage to America.

When the ship arrived with ninety young women on board, the men greeted them gladly. Courting was done in a hurry, and ministers were on hand to marry them at once. The tobacco was paid down, and all the women found good homes in a prosperous colony. Other ships came with young women for wives. Soon the settlers' homes showed the touch of woman's hands, signs of peace and prosperity and contentment were on all sides, and the colony was well on its way to success.

5. AFFAIRS IN VIRGINIA

At first everybody was required to live out of a common stock. This was one of the reasons why the people of the colony in Virginia were dissatisfied. No matter how hard a man worked, or what he raised on his little farm, he had to put it all together with the others. Each man drew out of this common stock what he needed for his own use. In this way every man felt that he was working for the colony and not for himself. This made the industrious ones support the idle and lazy.

When Thomas Dale became governor of Virginia, he promptly changed all this. He gave every man his own little farm and allowed him to keep all he made on it. Those who worked had an abundance. Those who were idle had nothing. All that Dale required of each man was that he should pay two and one-half barrels of corn yearly as his share of

the tax. This change brought about greater activity and more content.

Another cause of discontent was that all the laws for the colonists were made in England, and whatever governor was sent over by the king could do as he chose, without asking the consent of the colonists. This also was changed, and a new charter was granted to Virginia, allowing the people to have a voice in the making of their laws. They were allowed to have a general assembly of persons chosen by them, who were to meet and make laws for the government of the colony. The governor was still appointed by the king, but the people could decide many things for themselves.

Under the provision of the new charter, the people of each settlement, which was also called a borough, elected representatives to a general or colonial assembly, which met for the first time in Jamestown, **July 30, 1619**. This was the first time in the history of America that a meeting was held by the representatives of the people for the purpose of making laws. It was America's first legislature.

Other people came over to Virginia in great numbers. In one year as many as twelve hundred joined the various settlements, and peace and prosperity appeared on all sides. The settlers, as fast as they came over, were given small farms, upon which they built houses and established their families.

Lands were cleared, corn and tobacco were planted, and roads between the settlements and the farms were laid out. Ships appeared on the rivers, with live stock, farm utensils, clothing, medicine, and other articles from England. On the docks were piled huge hogsheads of tobacco and bags of corn to be sent to England.

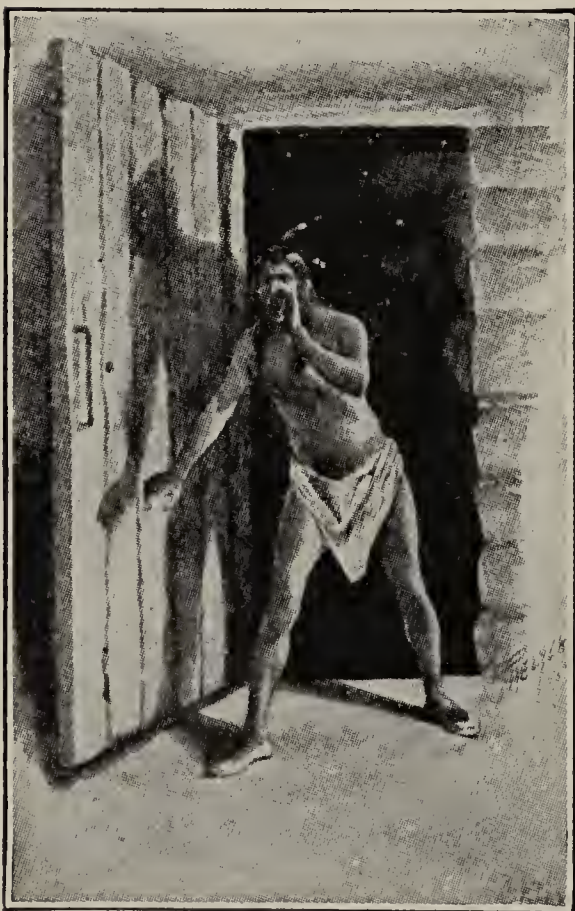
In 1619 a Dutch war vessel arrived in Jamestown, and sold to the colonists twenty negroes to be used as slaves.

Slavery introduced The negroes had been captured on the coast of Africa. They were very docile, easily managed, and made excellent field hands. This was the beginning of slavery in what is now the United States.

One sad event checked the general joy. Powhatan, the friend of the white men, had died. The new chief looked with distrust and suspicion upon the palefaces. The white men kept on coming in such numbers that he was afraid they would become too strong for the Indians and drive them away.

The red men already foresaw their fate.

Silently and secretly the Indians gathered about their council fires and made their deadly **The massacre** plans. They were to hide in the forests and around the plantations until noon, when the men would be in the fields and without their guns. Then the savages were to rush in and murder everybody. The cruel plot was laid, the Indians were on the warpath, and the colonists were not aware of their danger.



A CONVERTED INDIAN GIVES WARNING
OF THE INTENDED MASSACRE

On the morning of the massacre (1622), a friendly Indian ran into Jamestown, and told the people that the Indians were gathering for the destruction of the whites. It was too late

to save any place but Jamestown, or to notify any of the planters. The blow fell. The painted savages burned and murdered and scalped until four hundred people were killed and eighty plantations were reduced to eight. It was a dreadful massacre.

The white people took their revenge upon the Indians. For years a war was kept up in which the lives of many white people as well as of many Indians were lost. The savages were hunted and driven from place to place until they were thoroughly beaten and punished. They were then glad to sue for peace.

6. THE PILGRIMS IN NEW ENGLAND

The shores of New England were very well known to the English by this time. Fishing vessels often went that way, and Captain John Smith, our hero of Jamestown, had explored the coast for many miles and had given the land the name of New England. We have now to see who came there to make a settlement.

To do this let us go back to England. We find that at that time people were not allowed to think as they chose in regard to religion. The king, James I, a narrow-minded and obstinate ruler, declared that The king's religion everybody should think as he thought and that there should be but one church and one form of worship. Nowadays, no king would do such a thing. People do as they please about religious matters, join any church they like, go to service or stay away, as it suits them. But things were different then and people had to do as the king said.

There were some people in England who did not like this, because they wanted to worship God in their own way. Besides that, they thought the church should be purified of

its corrupt practices. In derision, these people were called Puritans. Some of these Puritans resolved to leave the established church and form a separate congregation of their own. They became known as "Separatists."

The Puritans

After enduring many persecutions this little band escaped from England and went to live in Holland. Here they stayed twelve years, working hard, attending to their own business, and having the kind of church service and religion they liked.

The only objection to remaining in Holland was that the children were learning Dutch customs and speaking the Dutch language. Therefore these wanderers, who became known as "Pilgrims," decided to come to America. While other colonists turned to these shores for gold and gain, the Pilgrims came here to find a place of freedom to worship God according to their own ideas.

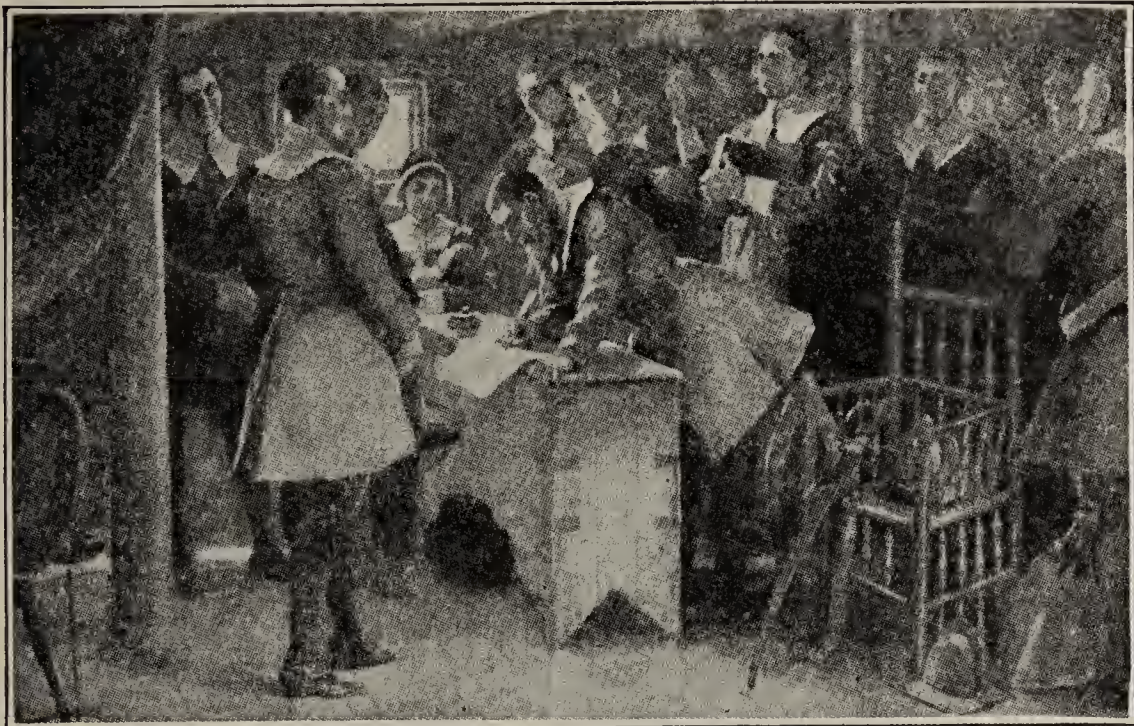
The Pilgrims

It was decided to send a small number of their people over to America to find a place for them all to settle. Two vessels were engaged to take the colonists over, but hardly had they sailed when one of the ships sprung a leak and had to go into harbor for repairs. The repairs were of no avail and the vessel was abandoned. About one hundred of the Pilgrims gathered on board the other vessel — the *Mayflower* — bound for America.

The party intended to land somewhere on the New Jersey coast, where the king had given them permission to go, glad to get rid of them doubtless and hoping all the others of their sort would soon follow. The weather on the voyage was so bad that the *Mayflower* came to land around Cape Cod. This seemed as good a place as any, and the settlers decided to found their colony there.

The Pilgrims held a meeting in the cabin of the *Mayflower*, and signed an agreement among themselves, by which each

one bound himself to obey all the laws of the colony, and to see that only good laws were made. They chose John Carver to be governor. Then they began to explore the coast to find a good place to locate.



THE PILGRIMS GATHER IN THE CABIN OF THE "MAYFLOWER" AND SIGN THE COMPACT

The Pilgrims settled at a place which Captain John Smith had marked *Plymouth* on his map. They decided to make that the site of their town, because it reminded them of their old home in England. This was **December 21, 1620**, thirteen years after Jamestown in Virginia had been settled. Landing of the Pilgrims

On Christmas Day the first house was begun. It was a rude storehouse for provisions. All that day and for many days after, the men cut down trees, built cabins for their families, covered them with thatch, filled up the cracks with mud and mortar, and put oiled paper in the windows. It was very cold, and the colonists suffered dreadfully. The winter settled down dreary and severe. Half the colonists died,

among them Governor Carver himself. William Bradford was chosen in his place, and the people did the best they could until spring.

The Indians were watching them. The colonists did not know whether they were friendly or not, so the graves of the dead were leveled, plowed over, and planted with corn, in order that the savages could not tell how many had died.



THE PILGRIMS SUFFER GREAT HARDSHIP

One day an Indian walked into the village crying aloud, "Welcome, Englishmen." His name was Samoset, an Indian from Maine. He had learned a little English from the fishermen along the coast. Samoset became the friend of the colonists. He brought another Indian, named Squanto, who lived a long time with the English and helped them in many ways.

He told the settlers to plant their corn when the oak leaf was as big as a mouse's ear, and to drop a dead herring in each hill for fertilizer. He hunted and fished for the colonists, and

became their guide, interpreter, and protector. He told the Indians that the white men kept the plague buried in the ground and could let it loose whenever they liked. It was



SAMOSET ENTERS THE VILLAGE AND CALLS OUT, "WELCOME, ENGLISHMEN"

through his help that a treaty was made with Massasoit, a neighboring chief, which was faithfully kept by both sides for fifty years.

But not all of the Indians were so friendly. Canonicus, the chief of the Narragansetts, did not like to see the white men on his soil. He sent Governor Bradford a bundle of arrows tied in a snake skin. The messenger dropped it in the village street and ran away as fast as he could.

Governor Bradford knew that this meant war. He filled the snake skin full of powder and shot and sent it back to Canonicus. If there was one thing the Indians were afraid of, it was the gun of the white man, and the mysterious black dirt that could turn into thunder and throw deadly balls.

Canonicus looked at the snake skin and decided that he did not desire war.

Among the leaders of the Pilgrims of Plymouth was the stout and valiant soldier, Miles Standish. He was small in

**Appearance
of Captain
Standish**

size, with yellow hair and beard, quick of temper, and brave as a lion in his dealings with the Indians. Some of them called him "boiling water" on account of his temper; others called him "Captain Shrimp" on



CAPTAIN MILES STANDISH AND SIXTEEN FOLLOWERS LAND FROM THE "MAYFLOWER"
TO EXPLORE THE COAST

account of his size and color. He and sixteen followers were the first of the Pilgrims to land from the *Mayflower*.

His wife died the first year of the colony, when so many perished from the hardships. At one time Standish and six others were the only well ones. They brought all the wood, made all the fires, cooked most of the food, and even washed the clothes of nearly the entire colony.

Captain Standish was the leader of the colonists in their dealings with the Indians. He required every man to carry his gun with him, and be ready to use it. Even when the

colonists assembled to go to church, each man brought his musket to the captain's door. Then they marched by twos and threes to the meeting-house, the women along with them. The men stood their guns by their sides while service was being held.

The Pilgrims had passed their first summer, and it was now autumn. The corn was ripe in the fields, the nuts were falling in the woods, the game was plentiful, and the Indians were peaceful. "Let us gather our crops, call in our Indian friends, have a day or two of feasting and fun, and call it Thanksgiving," said Governor Bradford.

To this the Pilgrims all agreed, after they had been granted a whole week instead of one or two days. Massasoit was invited. He came with a string of bones and a pouch of tobacco around his neck, his face daubed with paint, and his hair sleek with oil. Governor Bradford said he "looked greasily." His braves were with him in all the glory of deer-skins and feathers, and with faces painted all the colors of the rainbow.

The white men and the Indians went hunting, and killed wild turkeys and deer for the feast. The women cooked the meat, broiled the fish, baked the bread, and the young people waited on the tables. Under the trees the tables were spread. Around them sat the Pilgrims and their Indian friends. Jokes were passed, stories were told, and the old times in England and Holland were talked over. Then followed games and shooting matches, and by night the Indians danced and sang their war chants.

It was a royal week of Thanksgiving. The custom has now passed into a national holiday, and once a year the whole nation rejoices in its prosperity and gives thanks for its many blessings.

7. THE PURITANS IN NEW ENGLAND

We have already seen that many people in New England did not like the established church, and thought it was corrupt. Those who tried to purify the church were called Puritans. Some of these separated from the church, and some did not. Those who did not leave the church but who refused to conform and subscribe to the teachings of the established church were called "Nonconformists."

We are now to see that these Puritans, exasperated by the policy of Charles I, who was no less a bigot and religious tyrant than his father James I, also came to New England to find homes and freedom to worship in their own manner.

The old Plymouth Company secured a charter to a vast territory which they called New England. This company made ready a ship to take a body of Puritans over to America in 1628, with John Endicott as leader. The colonists landed on the shores of Massachusetts and founded a town which they called Salem. The next year Endicott sent an exploring party up the Charles River and began a settlement which took the name of Charlestown.

A large number of Puritans were desirous of coming to America. A royal charter was secured from Charles I, organizing a new company known as the Company of Massachusetts Bay in New England, with very liberal provisions for the colonists to govern themselves. This new company practically took the place of the old company, and under its protection many Puritans of wealth and prominence, and even whole congregations, came over to New England. In 1630 more than one thousand came over under the leadership of John Winthrop and settled at Boston, which afterwards became the capital of the colony, and a great city.

Other towns were soon established as people came over, and in ten years as many as twenty thousand people had left England to find homes in what is now the State of Massachusetts.

Governor John Winthrop, who was the leader of the Boston settlement, was as remarkable a man in his way, as was Captain John Smith of Virginia, or Captain Miles Standish of Plymouth. He was brave, self-reliant, and very religious and severe in his notions.

There was no time for play in a young colony, and, besides,

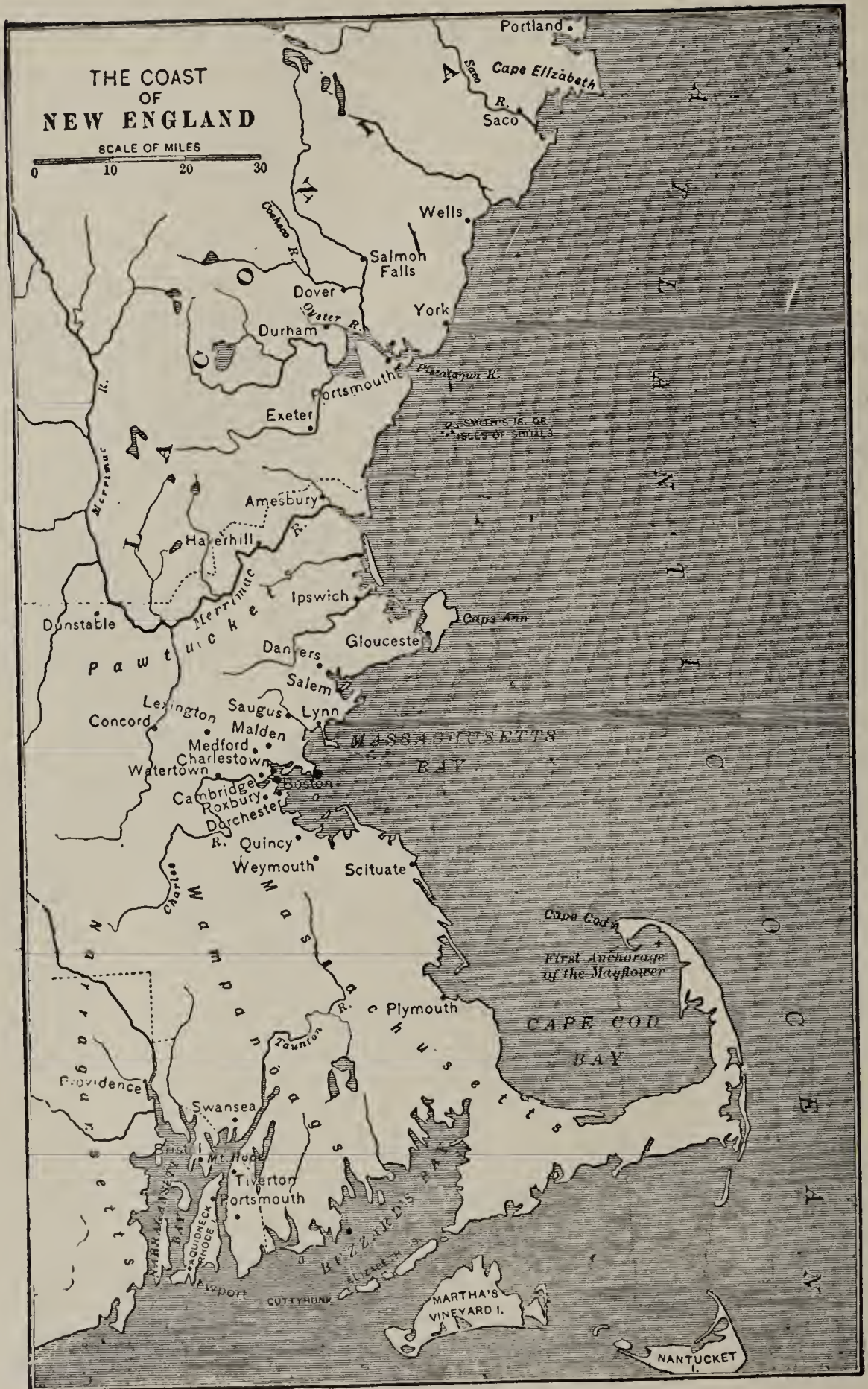
Puritan life the Puritans were a severe people who did not believe much in play. Nobody was allowed to dance, or attend any kind of entertainment. The women were not allowed to wear ribbons, nor dresses of fine cloth. The governor himself wore the plainest clothes and lived in the simplest way. Everybody had to go to bed early. The governor ordered all lights out by nine

o'clock, but you may be sure he had everybody up by day-break, and as soon as the sun rose the town was busy at work.

Roger Williams Among the men who left the first settlement to found others was Roger Williams, who had come over to Salem in 1631 as a preacher. He was a Puritan and had left England on account of the persecution.



THE PURITANS MARCH IN A BODY TO CHURCH, ARMED FOR PROTECTION AGAINST THE SAVAGES



SETTLEMENTS IN THE NEW ENGLAND COLONIES

Roger Williams had even severer views on the subject of religion than the other Puritans. He preached very boldly that all laws that bound a man's conscience were unjust; that a man should not be punished for staying away from church; that the king had no right to give away the lands of the Indians; and preached other doctrines that the Puritans generally did not believe in.

The people of Salem decided that Williams was too bold a preacher, and so they ordered him to go back to England.

He refused to go, and kept on preaching. Soldiers were sent to his house to arrest him, but he escaped before they arrived, and fled into the forests to the villages of his Indian friends. He had already learned their language, had slept in their tents, and knew their ways.



ROGER WILLIAMS, HAVING SETTLED AT PROVIDENCE, WELCOMES ANNE HUTCHINSON TO HIS COLONY

With five friends, Williams sought for a place to found a colony of his own. He at last settled at Providence (1636). He made friends with the Indians and bought a large tract of land from them. His earnest pleading kept the terrible Narragansetts friendly to all the white colonists. Other friends soon joined his colony, and a prosperous community was started.

Another member of the Puritan church in Boston was Mrs. Anne Hutchinson. She declared that the preachers did not preach sound doctrine. The preachers replied that

a woman had no business mixing in public affairs, and should not hold meetings in her own house to discuss religious matters. The preachers then banished her from Boston.

Mrs. Anne Hutchinson

With a few friends she went to Providence, where Roger Williams was, and by his advice and help bought some land from Canonicus, the Indian chief. The first settlement was called Portsmouth, and the second was called Newport. After a while the towns of Providence, Portsmouth, and Newport were united under one government, and were called Rhode Island and Providence Plantations. These settlements were the beginning of the present State of Rhode Island.

There was a rule among the Puritans at Boston that only church members should vote in the affairs of government.

Thomas Hooker Thomas Hooker, although a pastor of a church, thought that everybody should have a voice in public affairs whether he was a member of a church or not. Governor Winthrop would not listen to such an idea. Then Hooker decided to found a town of his own, where every man could have a voice in its management.

A few months after Roger Williams had been driven out of Salem, Hooker gathered a large body of people who thought as he did, and started on a journey toward the Connecticut River. The congregation traveled slowly, taking their children, goods, and cattle with them. They lived as best they could during their long march, on the food they brought, and on the milk of the cows.

They settled at Hartford on the Connecticut River in Connecticut 1636. They drew up a body of laws for the government of the town, and for other towns which were established later. In this manner the colony of Con-

necticut began, under a written constitution, in which everybody had a voice and a vote in the government. This was the first time in the history of the world that a colony was thus begun.

TOPICS

The Spaniards Settle Florida. The power of Spain; the motives of her explorers. First Spanish settlements and adventurers. Ponce de Leon, and the search for the fountain of youth. Discovery and naming of Florida. Wanderings and fate of De Leon. Cortez and the conquest of Mexico. Landing of De Soto. His travels; treatment of the Indians; discovery of the Mississippi; death and burial. Wanderings of Coronado. Spanish settlements.

The French Settle Canada. Spanish wars. Rise of France and England. Francis I. Verrazano. Cartier. Champlain. Quebec founded. Explorations of Champlain. Hardships at Quebec. Trouble with the Iroquois. The growth of England. Rise of London. Queen Elizabeth. Plundering the Spaniards. The Spanish Armada; its movements; its destruction; the result.

The English Settle Virginia. Sir Walter Raleigh. Exploring and naming Virginia. First settlement at Roanoke. How the colony behaved and how it was saved. Corn; the potato; tobacco. The second colony. Virginia Dare. The lost colony. Trading with the Old World. Forming companies. Sailing for America. Arrival in America. Naming the river and the colony. Hardships of the colonists. Sufferings and discouragement.

The Progress of Jamestown. Influence of John Smith; his character; some of his adventures. Pocahontas saves his life. Pocahontas. The "Starving Time." Arrival of Gates. How the colony was saved. Prosperity. Tobacco growing. Wives for the colonists.

Affairs in Virginia. Discontent. Dale's laws. Provisions of the new charter. First Assembly. Prosperity of the colony. Introduction of slaves. Death of Powhatan. Indian plots and massacre. Saving Jamestown.

The Pilgrims in New England. Naming New England. James I and his religion. The Puritans; Separatists. The Pilgrims; life in Holland. Coming to America; the *Mayflower*. The signed agreement.

Landing of the Pilgrims. Sufferings. Samoset and Squanto. Challenge of Canonicus; Bradford's answer. Miles Standish; his appearance; his orders. The first Thanksgiving.

The Puritans in New England. The Puritans; Nonconformists. John Endicott's colony; Salem; Charlestown. The new company; settlement of Boston. John Winthrop. Puritan life in New England. Roger Williams; his doctrines; his conflict with the people of Salem. Founding Providence. Mrs. Anne Hutchinson. Portsmouth. Newport. Rhode Island. Thomas Hooker. The journey to the Connecticut River. Founding of Hartford.

SUBJECTS FOR STUDY

Compare the methods of the Spaniards, the French, and the English in exploring the New World. What was the influence of the destruction of the Armada upon the history of America? Why did the Jamestown colony have such a struggle for existence? Compare the motives of the New England colonists with the motives of other colonists in America. What influence did the original colonists have upon the present character of the New England people?

COMPOSITION

Write a letter from one of the first settlers at Jamestown, describing the hardships of the first few years.

Write a description of the voyage of the Pilgrims and their landing. Describe the life of the Puritans in Boston.

MAP QUESTIONS

Locate Montreal; Quebec. Locate Jamestown. Find the first anchorage of the *Mayflower*. Locate Plymouth. How far is Boston from Plymouth? Locate Providence; Newport.

Collateral Reading. "The Landing of the Pilgrims," by Mrs. Hemans. "The Courtship of Miles Standish," by Longfellow.

CHAPTER IV

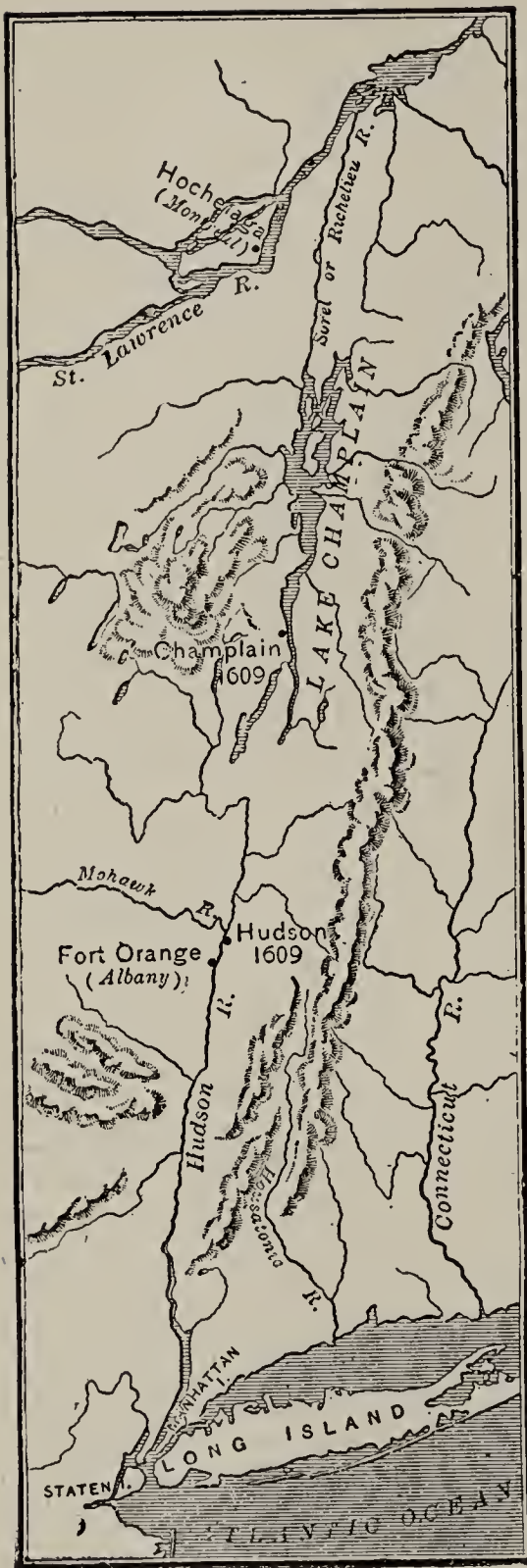
LATER COLONIES IN THE NEW WORLD

1. THE DUTCH SETTLE NEW YORK

The people of the Netherlands had been engaged in a long and terrible war with Spain, in order to gain religious and political freedom from that country, which at this time held the Dutch colonies as subjects. The war lasted many years and was attended with great suffering and cruelty. This war was going on when the Spanish Armada prepared to invade England.

The destruction of the Armada marked the decline of the power of Spain, and the rise of England, and in a few years the Netherlands had thrown off the yoke of Spain and become independent. The Dutch now turned their attention to the seas and became practically the only rivals of England in the commerce of the world. Their navigators were full of daring and adventure. Their sea captains traded with the Far East and introduced tea and coffee into Europe. They sailed around South America and gave Cape Horn its name. They discovered Australia, New Zealand, and Tasmania. They were now ready to turn their attention to North America, to find a way through the continent to China, or to found colonies in the new land.

In 1609, two years after Jamestown was settled, and eleven years before the Pilgrims landed at Plymouth, Henry Hudson, an Englishman, sailed across the Atlantic Ocean in a ship called the *Half Moon*, under a Dutch



HISTORIC WATERWAYS

flag, and in the service of the Dutch East India Company. Whatever land Hudson discovered would belong, of course, to the Dutch.

In the month of September, after a five months' voyage, Captain Hudson came **Enters New York Bay** in sight of the hills that mark the coast around New York. Sailing into what we now call Sandy Hook, he anchored at the entrance of New York Bay, and saw before him a broad entrance, which he hoped might lead through the continent and into China.

With the broad river before him he sailed boldly forward, passing the site of West Point, and the great Catskill Mountains, and going as far as the present city of Albany. Here the ship could go no farther. Hudson saw that he had no prospect of reaching China that way, so he turned the *Half Moon* downstream.

Hudson then sailed out of the river he had discovered, which ever since has been known **Dutch claims** as the Hudson River. He sailed back to Holland, and reported to the Dutch what he had done and seen. They

at once laid claim to all the lands on both sides of the river, by right of discovery and exploration.

The Dutch laid claim to all the lands in America that Henry Hudson had visited while sailing under the Dutch flag. They sent out ships to trade with the Indians, and established



HENRY HUDSON IN 1609 SAILS UP THE HUDSON RIVER UNDER A DUTCH FLAG AND CLAIMS ALL THE TERRITORY OF NEW YORK FOR THE DUTCH

trading posts along the Hudson River and on Manhattan Island. They bought valuable furs from the Indians in exchange for cheap toys, beads, and other articles.

In 1614 a few cabins were built on Manhattan Island, and a little town was started with a fort to protect it. The place was named New Amsterdam, after the town of Amsterdam

in Holland. Afterwards the whole island was bought from the Indians for a few trinkets and other small articles worth about twenty-four dollars. The Indians had no idea of values, and would sell the white men the richest lands or the finest furs for cheap jewelry and gaudy ornaments.

The Dutch merchants formed the Dutch West India Company and obtained a charter to trade in the territory from the Delaware to the Connecticut River. They called all this land New Netherlands. Thus we see that there were a New England, a New France, and a New Netherlands in America, all at one time. New England is the only one of the three names that has survived.

The Dutch settlements grew slowly. Fort Orange was built on the site of the present city of Albany. The few scattered hamlets around the mouth of the river were mere trading posts. After fifteen years New Amsterdam had only three hundred people.

The Dutch Company now offered to every man who would bring over a colony of fifty persons a tract of land sixteen miles along the river, over which he could be the absolute ruler and lord, provided he paid the Indians for it. This was easily done, and some of these lords, or patroons as they were called, played an important part in the history of the colony.

The Dutch sent over several governors to New Netherlands, but Peter Stuyvesant was the most noted of them all.

He had been a soldier, and while fighting bravely had lost a leg. Ever afterwards he wore a wooden leg. Because it was bound with silver bands he was called "Old Silver Leg." He was cross and peevish and sometimes would get terribly angry when things did not go to suit him.

Still, he ruled justly, and the people respected him. He forbade the merchants selling whisky to the Indians, he established good schools for the children, and he made everybody go to church, though each one was allowed to go to any church he chose.

The Dutch lived differently from the English in **Dutch life and customs** New England. They had odd-looking houses, with curious gables, and a stoop, or porch, in front. Inside, the stolid, fat Dutch merchants sat and smoked their pipes in comfort. The women were excellent housekeepers. They kept everything clean and orderly, the floors covered with white sand, and the tiles polished as bright as could be. The Dutch housewives became noted for their thrift.



THE DUTCH PATROONS LIVED IN EASE AND COMFORT

The men wore baggy knee-breeches and long stockings, with silver buckles at the knee and on their shoes. They wore curious high hats, and often a braid of hair hanging from the back of the head. Many of the families of New York trace their ancestry back to the good old Dutch colonists of New Amsterdam, and many streets, villages, and mountains there still bear the names first given them by the Dutch settlers.

England, however, had her eyes on the Dutch settlements, and the growth of New Amsterdam on Manhattan Island

did not please the king. England claimed all the land that the Dutch had occupied, on the ground that it was part of the territory discovered by Cabot, and that Henry Hudson was an Englishman, even if he did sail under the Dutch flag.

The real reason for asserting this claim was that the Dutch were trading too freely with the English colonies to suit the English merchants. They carried great quantities of tobacco, furs, and other American products to Holland that the English thought should go to England. In addition to this, the Dutch colonies in America separated the New England colonies from the other English colonies in America. Therefore Charles II, king of England, thought it was about time to put a stop to Dutch colonization in the territory claimed by England.



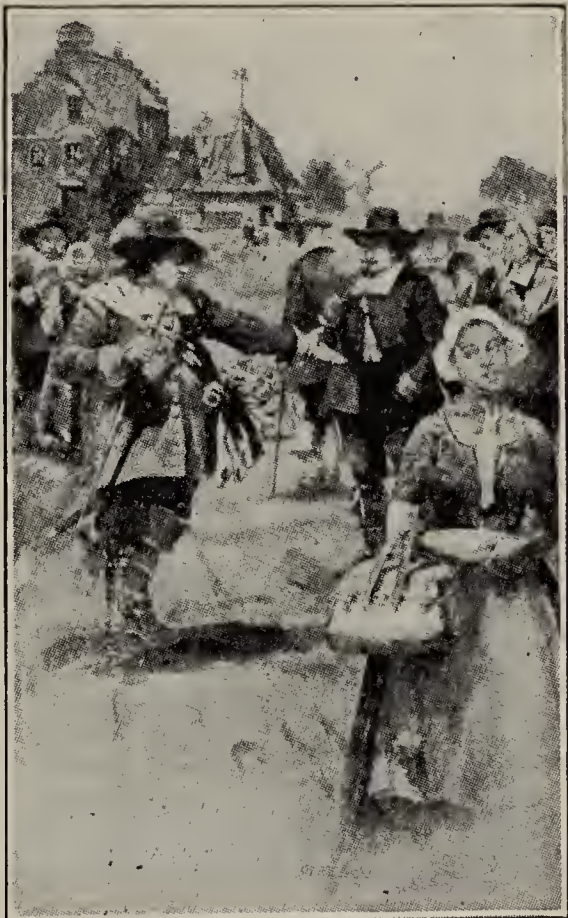
NEW NETHERLAND

In 1664 Charles II gave the land occupied by the Dutch in America to his brother, the Duke of York, ignoring the claims of the Dutch occupants. A fleet of English ships appeared off Manhattan Island. The Dutch were ordered to surrender their town. Governor Stuyvesant was in a great rage. He tore up the demand for surrender, and called upon the people to drive

the English away. But it happened that the Dutch had grown tired of Stuyvesant's rule and more especially of the tyranny of the "patroons," or proprietors. So they forced Governor Stuyvesant to yield to the demands of the English. It mattered but little to the Dutch in New Amsterdam whether they lived under the Dutch flag or the English flag. At any rate, they saw the uselessness of contending with the greater strength of the English fleet at their doors.

The name New Amsterdam was now changed to New York in honor of the Duke of York, who later became James II, king of England. The village contained only fifteen hundred people at the time, but it has since grown into one of the greatest cities of the world. All the Dutch claims in America were ceded to the English, though the Dutch colonists still remained as good citizens and subjects of the king of England.

Even old Peter Stuyvesant did not return to Holland. He had a farm on Manhattan Island called the Bowery. Here he spent his last days in peace and comfort, honored and respected, dying at the age of eighty years.



STUYVESANT IN A RAGE APPEALS TO THE PEOPLE NOT TO SURRENDER THEIR TOWN

2. THE FOUNDING OF MARYLAND

We have now to see how another sort of colony was established in America, and for the same reason that the Plymouth Colony was settled. This time, however, it was for the Roman Catholics, who had no civil rights at all by the laws of England. If a man were a Roman Catholic he could not hold office or take any part in the government. In many other ways the Roman Catholics were persecuted, and made to suffer for their religious faith.

There lived in England a good Catholic named George Calvert, who was a friend of the king, Charles I. He had been made a lord, with the title of Lord Baltimore. He wanted to find a place in America where he could found a Catholic colony, and where the persecuted members of that church could worship without hindrance.

The king readily granted to Lord Baltimore a portion of land north of the Potomac River. This was easily done since the grant cost him nothing, and he had to ask nobody's consent. The land was named Maryland in compliment to the wife of the king, whose name was Henrietta Maria, and who herself was a Catholic.

Whereas other colonies had been ruled by a company, this colony was to be governed entirely by Lord Baltimore, who was called the "Lord Proprietor." It was in this way that Maryland, and several other colonies afterwards established, differed from the colonies ruled by charters, or by governors appointed by the king.

Lord Baltimore was almost a king in the powers granted him. He had to pay a yearly rent of two arrowheads to the Crown of England, together with a fifth part of all the gold and silver he found in Maryland, but as he never

found any, this part of the contract did not amount to anything.

Lord Baltimore had the right to coin money, create courts, appoint judges, pardon criminals, and call together an assembly of the people to make laws. The laws did not have to be sent to England for the king to approve, but were to be approved by Lord Baltimore himself. Finally, Lord Baltimore's sons in line were to be his heirs as lords of the colony. This was quite different from the other colonies in America, but King Charles granted all this to his favorite friend.

The powers of Lord Baltimore

The good George Calvert did not live to found his colony, and his son Cecil Calvert, who is called the second Lord Baltimore,



MARYLAND ACCORDING TO THE ORIGINAL CHARTER

took up the work his father began. Two vessels, called the *Dove* and the *Ark*, set sail for America carrying two hundred colonists.

Not all of these were Catholics, for a few Protestants had joined the enterprise, since Lord Baltimore had resolved that all kinds of religion should be tolerated. The Catholics had been persecuted in England, but in America they would not themselves turn persecutors. Cecil Calvert did not come himself, but sent his brother Leonard Calvert, to whom is really due the credit of founding the colony of Maryland. The colonists landed in 1634, and founded the colony of St. Mary's.

Founding the colony

Trade opened at once with the Indians. Land was secured for the town, in exchange for clothes, axes, hatchets, knives, and other articles, the Indians liked. The savages were friendly, invited the colonists to spend a while in their wigwams, and showed them how to plant corn and make bread.

This colony was spared many of the hardships that other colonies suffered. Tobacco was planted on the rich lands, negro slaves were purchased to work on the farms, many Protestants joined the colony, and under the wise rule of the Calverts Maryland prospered year after year.

The people of Virginia, on the other hand, were not at all pleased to see so prosperous a rival colony near them. One **Trouble with Virginia** Virginian, named Claiborne, who lived on Kent Island in Chesapeake Bay, attacked the Marylanders with an armed force. He was defeated, however, and driven from the island.

Later, when a number of Puritans had come to Maryland and tried to overthrow the Catholic government, Claiborne tried with their assistance to invade Maryland again. Once more he was driven away. He tried a third time, and succeeded in defeating the Marylanders in a battle fought near the site of the city of Annapolis.

The cause of the Calverts was carried to England, and after a patient hearing there it was decided that Lord Baltimore and his descendants had a right to the soil of Maryland, and the Virginians were ordered **The Calverts defend their cause** not to molest them. After this the Maryland colony had no further trouble.

With varying fortunes the colonies in Maryland grew. After fifty or sixty years, laws were enacted against the Catholics, and the rule of the Calverts was brought to a close.

Then, for more than twenty years the colony was ruled by governors sent over from England.

At length the fourth Lord Baltimore turned Protestant, and the proprietorship was restored to him. This was not again disturbed until the colonies rebelled against England and a new government began for them all.

3. THE SETTLEMENT OF NEW JERSEY AND DELAWARE

You will remember that the territory of New York was captured by the English. It was then given to the Duke of



GOVERNOR CARTERET ARRIVES AT ELIZABETHTOWN

York, the brother of the king of England. The land comprised in this territory extended toward the south, covering the present States of New Jersey and Delaware.

The Duke of York had two friends in England named Lord Berkeley and Sir George Carteret. Between these two noblemen he divided a portion of the southern part of the territory captured from the Dutch, and named the territory New Jersey, in honor of the Isle of Jersey which was the English home of Sir George Carteret. The whole territory was later divided into two

East Jersey
and West
Jersey

parts, one being known as West Jersey, the other as East Jersey.

There were already settlements along the coast and a few towns in this territory, the people buying land from the Indians and considering themselves as belonging to New York.

In 1665 Philip Carteret, the deputy governor, landed with thirty followers. He marched into one of the villages with a hoe on his shoulder, followed by the people from the ship, much to the surprise of the villagers. He then announced himself as governor, and named the place Elizabethtown in honor of the wife of Sir George Carteret.

This may be considered the beginning of the State of New Jersey.

Afterwards Lord Berkeley sold West Jersey, and the heirs of George Carteret sold East Jersey to a body of Quakers. William Penn, who became famous in Pennsylvania, was one of those who purchased George Carteret's share.

Settlers came promptly to this rich territory. A number of towns were built. Crops of wheat, berries, and

peaches were found to be valuable; wild turkey, deer, and fish supplied the tables with meat. The two colonies grew rapidly and prospered.

After a while the new owners of East Jersey and West



THE JERSEYS

Jersey, who were called the proprietors, grew tired of their charge and gave up their rights of jurisdiction in 1702. The two Jerseys were then united and called New Jersey, and governors were appointed directly by the Crown.

Let us now see how Delaware was also made out of some of the territory that had been acquired from the Dutch.

Peter Minuit, who had been governor in New Netherlands, entered the service of Sweden, and was engaged to bring over a body of Swedes to America and find them **Beginnings** a place to live. In 1638 he brought them over **of Delaware** and settled at a place he named Christina, in honor of the young queen of Sweden.

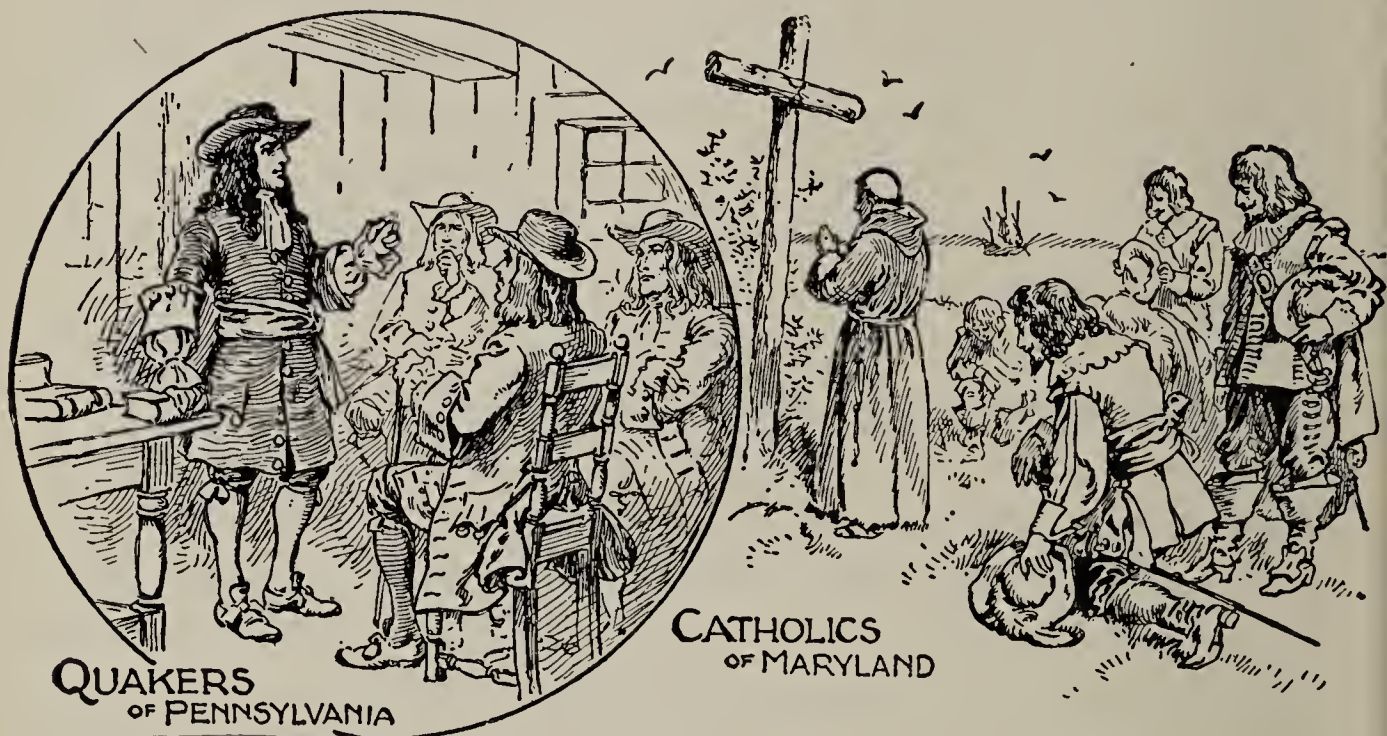
When Stuyvesant became governor of New Amsterdam, as New York was first called, he came down the coast with a big force of men, captured the Swedish fort, took the officers off to New Amsterdam, and made all the Swedes swear fidelity to Holland. This broke up the Swedish colony, and the Dutch remained in possession of the territory.

When the Dutch in turn gave up their possessions to the English, the Duke of York claimed this territory along with all the other lands held by the Dutch. William Penn obtained from the Duke a grant of lands covering most of the State of Delaware. The territory granted to Penn was called "The Three Lower Counties of the Delaware."

The people living in these counties, who were Swedes, Dutch, and a few English from Massachusetts, came under the government of Pennsylvania, and remained so until the Revolution. This is the early history of the State of Delaware.

4. THE SETTLEMENT OF PENNSYLVANIA

We now come to tell the story of still another sort of people who suffered for conscience' sake and who came to America to find a place of refuge. These belonged to the Society of Friends, or Quakers as they are better known.



QUAKERS
OF PENNSYLVANIA

CATHOLICS
OF MARYLAND

IN AMERICA EVERY MAN WAS FREE TO WORSHIP IN HIS OWN WAY

The Quakers went even further than the Puritans in the simplicity of their faith and life. They lived on the simplest food, and dressed in the plainest clothes. They would give no man a title, but always called him by his name. They said "thee" and "thou" to each other instead of "you." They kept on their hats no matter where they were, even in the king's presence. They would not go to law about anything, and did not believe in war. They were a people of peace, and never returned a blow or used an oath. They believed in equality and brotherly love, and called everybody "Friend."

Customs of
the Quakers

The Quakers were very unpopular in England. They were hooted at by the people, who made all kinds of sport of their somber brown dress, broad-brimmed hats, and simple ways. The Quakers were forbidden by law to hold a meeting within five miles of any town. They were indeed a persecuted and despised sect.

Among their number was a young man named William Penn, who belonged to a distinguished family. His father was an admiral in the navy and a great friend of **William** Charles II, the king of England. When he died **Penn** he left his son an estate of £16,000, which was in the form of a debt owed by the king.

The king did not have the money, and was glad enough to give Penn a large tract of land west of the Dela- **Pennsylvania** ware River in payment of the debt. The grant **granted** covered 40,000 square miles. By the signing of the king's name Penn became one of the largest land owners of the world. It was a vast and princely domain. Penn wished it to be named Sylvania, which means "Woodland." The king agreed to this, but quietly wrote the word Penn before it, saying, "It shall be called *Pennsylvania*, in honor of the admiral, your father."

Three vessels were sent out by Penn from England in 1681, but one of them was frozen hard in the Delaware River. Penn himself sailed one year later with about one hundred colonists, and landed on the shores of Pennsylvania.

He sent word to the Delaware Indians to meet him for the purpose of forming a treaty of friendship. The Indians gladly came, and on the day appointed great **Penn's treaty** crowds of warriors, with their wives and children, assembled to listen to Penn. Presents were distributed and a price for the lands was agreed upon.

The Indians promised to live in peace with the whites. Their chief shook hands with the great leader of the Quakers, and a treaty of friendship was made that lasted for many years. The Indians and the Quakers hunted and fished



WILLIAM PENN MEETS THE DELAWARE INDIANS AND MAKES A TREATY OF PEACE

together, their children played together, and each went safely in and out of the villages and homes of the other.

Philadelphia was laid out in 1683. Its name means "Brotherly Love." In two years it had six hundred houses, and at one time was a larger city than New York.

Penn himself was only thirty-seven years old when he came to America. After a while, he went back to England, where misfortune overtook him. He was often imprisoned, and was once accused of being a traitor. This accusation was not true, and at last he was allowed to live in peace. He was one of the most upright of men, temperate in all things, pure in thought, language, and speech, and just in his dealings with his fellow men.

The colony of Pennsylvania grew and prospered. At last it became necessary to settle the boundary line on the south. Boundaries were then very uncertain. In 1767, **Mason and Dixon's Line** long after Penn had died, the dividing line was run by two surveyors named Mason and Dixon. Every mile was marked by a stone. This line became the boundary between Pennsylvania and Maryland, and is often spoken of as "Mason and Dixon's Line." Later on it became famous as a dividing line between the states of the North, where there were no slaves, and the states of the South, where negroes were still held in slavery.

5. THE SETTLEMENT OF THE CAROLINAS

By this time the English colonies had gradually spread out over the country, from New Hampshire to Virginia, and some of the present states were beginning to take shape and name. We must not forget that the French were holding the territory along the St. Lawrence River and that the Spaniards were still in Florida.

Between Virginia and Florida there was a large tract of land that England still claimed, to which few settlers had as yet gone. New England and the Middle Colonies were growing fast, but the vast regions in the South were hardly touched.

The king of England, Charles II, who had been restored to the throne which his father had lost in the Civil War in England, desired to reward his friends for their loyalty to his cause. He selected eight of his friends, among them the Duke of Albemarle and the Earl of Clarendon, and gave them, in 1663, all the land between Virginia and Florida. This was indeed a great gift, and out

The territory granted



MAP SHOWING EUROPEAN CLAIMS IN AMERICA ABOUT 1660

of it three great States have been made, but at that time it was called Carolina in honor of Charles II and of his father Charles I.

Among the first settlers in this territory we find many of the Virginians, eager for the wild life of the frontier, looking for fertile farms, and seeking adventures in the deep forests. They came across the border and settled upon land that is now in the State of North Carolina.

They put up rude huts along the river banks, cleared a few acres, bought a slave or two, planted tobacco, hunted and

The settlers

fished, and lived the free life of the early pioneer. Among these were some Quakers who had drifted down from Pennsylvania, and who were hurried along by the more warlike Virginians. These settlers came into this territory from time to time before it was separated into a distinct colony.

In order to provide laws for this country, a famous philosopher named John Locke was asked to draw up a model system of government. Although Locke's system was called the "Grand Model," it was a foolish plan of having lords, earls, and barons to own the land, while the people were to be mere tenants and dependents.

The Grand Model

The people who came to Carolina were too free in their ideas to be under such a system. Men who live in log houses, fight Indians, and brave the dangers of a wilderness, are not willing to be the tenants or dependents of anybody. So the Grand Model was a failure, and after twenty years' trial it was abandoned.

At first there was no purpose to make two colonies; but it so happened that the first colonies were planted far apart. Some colonists settled along Albemarle Sound and near the Virginia line. Other colonists settled farther south, near the present city of Charleston. This made much trouble in appointing the governors, so that sometimes there was one governor and sometimes there were two.

Carolina divided

The Lords Proprietors, as the owners in England were called, did not care anything for the colonies except to get as much money out of them as possible. Their rule was very unpopular with the colonists. After more than fifty years had passed, and Carolina had become well settled and established, these proprietors turned over their government to the

Crown. The two Carolinas were then divided into North Carolina and South Carolina, and each became a separate royal province. This was in 1729.

The settlements along Albemarle Sound were organized into the county of Albemarle. Other settlements along the Cape Fear River were organized into the county of Clarendon. These two counties were united under one government and called North Carolina.

**North Caro-
lina**

The people were allowed in the main to manage their own affairs. They were dissatisfied at first because they were not allowed to own their farms as the people of Virginia did, but as soon as the ownership of farms was permitted, peace was restored.

In the territory of North Carolina there lived at one time a tribe of Indians called the Tuscaroras. They did not like to see the white men settling on their hunting grounds and fishing in their rivers. One day a party of savages captured John Lawson, who was the surveyor-general of the colony, and burned him to death. The savages then attacked the farms and killed many families who were not near the villages. This brought on a dreadful war which lasted two years. The Tuscaroras were completely defeated and driven out of the colony.

**Trouble with
the Tuscaro-
ras, 1711-
1713**

The homes of the people of North Carolina were generally on large farms, and far apart. There were no good roads as we have nowadays, and travelers found their way through the forest by following marks on the trees. The people raised tobacco mainly, which was floated down the streams on small rafts to ships that lay in the harbors. Cattle were raised in the rich bottomlands.

**The life of
the people**

From the great pine forests the settlers obtained tar, pitch, and turpentine, which were put into barrels, floated on rafts

to the harbors, and sent to England. From the beginning of the colony, tobacco and the products of the pine forests have been among the chief sources of wealth of the people. The colony grew so rapidly that by the time of the Revolution it was the fourth in size among the thirteen colonies that rebelled against England.

The first settlers on the territory of South Carolina were people who came over from England in 1670 and started a town on the Ashley River. They named their settlement Charlestown, or Charleston as it is now called, in honor of Charles II, king of England. A few years after the landing, the town was moved to a place between the Ashley and Cooper rivers.

The fact that everybody was given freedom in



EXPLORING THE COAST OF THE CAROLINAS

the matter of religion encouraged many settlers. Englishmen came from the islands owned by England in the West Indies; Dutchmen came down from New York when that colony passed into the hands of the English; and many colonists came over from the mother country.

A large number of Huguenots, who were Protestants persecuted in France for their religion, came over and settled in America.

Many of them were of the best people in France, well educated and good citizens. A company of these Huguenots came to South Carolina, and from them have descended some of the best families in that State.

One of the trading vessels brought to Charleston some grains of rice from the island of Madagascar. These were
**Cultivation
of rice** planted by the colonists on the rich lowlands along the coast. The climate and soil proved to be so well adapted to rice that in a short time its culture became one of the main occupations of the people, and has remained so ever since.

In order to cultivate the rice, negro slaves were brought into the colony. This labor proved as well adapted to rice as rice had proved adapted to the soil.

The planters of South Carolina soon became people of wealth. Many of them had handsome homes in Charleston, which for a long time was the only city. The plantations were worked by negro slaves, who were comfortably cared for and well treated by their masters and overseers.

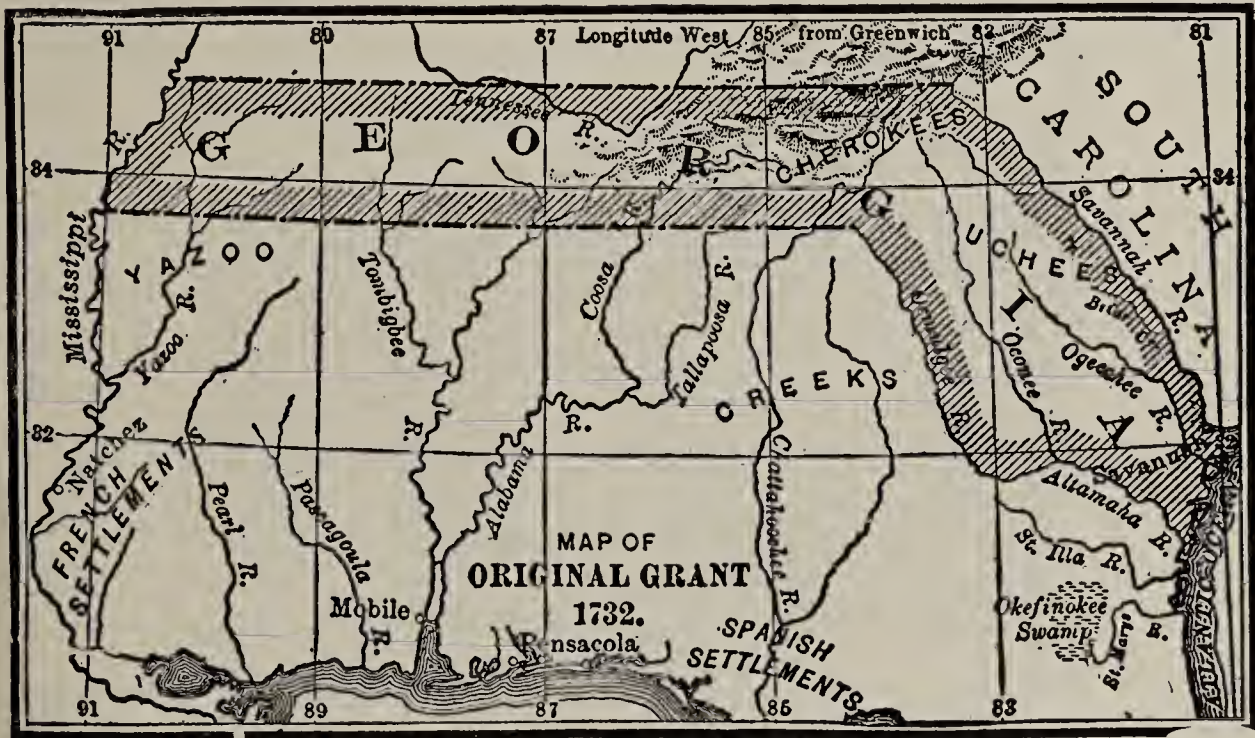
6. THE SETTLEMENT OF GEORGIA

Between South Carolina and the Spanish settlements in Florida there still remained a large tract of country unoccupied by either the English or the Spaniards, and yet claimed by both nations. We are now to see how this territory was settled by the English and became the last of the colonies that composed the original thirteen States.

Many of the laws of England at this time were hard and oppressive. One of these laws allowed a creditor to put a debtor in prison if he could not pay his debts. Nowadays no one thinks of trying to imprison a poor man who owes money he cannot pay, but in those days the prisons of England were full of unfortunate debtors.

There was an English philanthropist by the name of James Oglethorpe who became greatly interested in these poor

people. He resolved to ask the king for a grant of land in America, between Florida and South Carolina, where he would found a colony on the land claimed by the English for poor and worthy people to find work and homes. The grant of land was secured, and the new colony was named Georgia in honor of George II, who was then king of England.



MAP OF THE ORIGINAL TERRITORY OF GEORGIA

Oglethorpe decided to go to America himself with the colonists. He set about getting his emigrants, selecting them carefully from the great number that applied. He finally set sail from England with thirty-five families. In February, 1773, they sailed up the Savannah River, and founded the town of Savannah, eighteen miles from the mouth of the river.

The colonists at once set to work cutting down trees, building cabins, and laying out the streets of their town. Oglethorpe pitched a tent under a tree, where he lived for a

year, helping the colonists to establish their homes and build their town.

As soon as the colonists landed, Oglethorpe made a treaty of peace and friendship with the Indians. The old Indian chief, Tomochichi, gave him a buffalo skin with the head and feathers of an eagle painted on it, saying: "The eagle means speed, and the buffalo means strength. The feathers are soft and mean love. The skin is warm and means protection. Therefore love and protect



THE INDIANS PRESENT OGLETHORPE WITH A BUFFALO ROBE IN TOKEN OF A TREATY OF PEACE

our little families." This treaty was faithfully kept by the whites and Indians for many years.

Ships soon arrived bringing over new colonists. A body of German Protestants, called Salzburghers, were given a place on the Savannah River for their town, which they named Ebenezer. Jews also came to Savannah and were given a home in the new colony. Later on a body of Scotch Highlanders settled in Georgia. Georgia thus opened her doors to all good people from everywhere, and the oppressed of all lands were welcome.

Among those who came over to Georgia were John and Charles Wesley and George Whitefield, three great preachers. John Wesley came to preach to the colonists and to the Indians. George Whitefield founded a noted Orphan Asylum near Savannah.

In the course of four years over a thousand persons came into Georgia, and nearly sixty thousand acres of land were granted to settlers for farms. Five towns were built, including the present city of Augusta. Progress of Georgia
Forts had been erected along the principal rivers and on the coast, and treaties had been made with the Indians.

The Spaniards in Florida by no means relished the idea of an English settlement in Georgia. They claimed the land and still called it Florida. The king of Spain sent word to the king of England to allow no more forts to be built, and to send no more colonists to Georgia. When the message was read in the King's Council, one of the members remarked, "This message should be answered by a fleet of battleships on the coast of Spain."

Oglethorpe did not wait for the Spaniards to attack Savannah, but raised an army and proceeded to attack them in St. Augustine. He besieged the town, but could not capture it. He then withdrew his men and went back to Savannah. The Spaniards returned his visit with a large body of soldiers (1742).

Oglethorpe went down the coast to meet the invaders, and a bloody battle occurred on St. Simon's Island, in which the Spaniards were defeated, though they greatly outnumbered the English. The Spanish invasion
Oglethorpe laid a trap for the Spaniards by sending a letter into their camp by one of his prisoners, addressed to a deserter, telling him to keep the Spaniards in Georgia as long as he could and to deceive them as to the size of his army.

The letter went straight to the Spanish commander, who hastened to pack up his forces and leave Georgia as quickly as he could. Oglethorpe had only seven hundred men. The Spaniards had five thousand. This ended the Spanish invasion of Georgia.

After the colony was well established, Oglethorpe went back to England. He lived to be ninety-six years of age, **Last days of Oglethorpe** loved and honored by all who knew him. He lived to see Georgia an independent State. When the war of the Revolution occurred he was offered command of all the English forces sent to subdue the colonies, but he refused, saying he knew the Americans well; that "they never would be subdued by force, but that obedience would be secured by doing them justice."

TOPICS

The Dutch Settle New York. The war between Spain and the Netherlands. The rise of the Netherlands. The Dutch navigators. Henry Hudson; enters New York Bay; explores the Hudson River. The claims of the Dutch. Trading with the Indians. New Amsterdam. The territory of New Netherlands. The Dutch patroons. Peter Stuyvesant; his character. Life in New Amsterdam. Customs of the Dutch. England claims the Dutch lands; the reasons. The demands of the English. Rage of Stuyvesant. New Amsterdam becomes New York.

The Founding of Maryland. Roman Catholics in England. Lord Baltimore. Granting and naming of Maryland. The government of Maryland. Powers of Lord Baltimore. Cecil Calvert and his colonists. Founding of St. Mary's. Trade with the Indians. Prosperity of the colony. Trouble with the Virginians. The cause of the Calverts. Varying fortunes.

The Settlement of New Jersey and Delaware. Grants of land to Berkeley and Carteret. The two Jerseys. Philip Carteret and Elizabethtown. Change of ownership. New Jersey. Christina. Action of Stuyvesant. Grant to William Penn.

The Settlement of Pennsylvania. The Quakers in England; their customs; their persecutions. William Penn. The grant of land. Naming the State. Penn's arrival. Penn's treaty with the Delawares. Philadelphia. Last days of William Penn. Mason and Dixon's Line.

The Settlement of the Carolinas. Territory between Virginia and Florida. Granting the land and naming the colony. The first settlers. John Locke and the Grand Model. The first settlements. Rule of the Proprietors. Carolina divided. North Carolina begun. The Tuscaroras; their uprising and defeat. The homes of the people; their occupations; their industries. Beginnings of South Carolina. Charleston. The Huguenots. Rice planting. Slavery.

The Settlement of Georgia. Debtors' prisons. Oglethorpe. Grant of land. Naming the colony. Savannah founded. Oglethorpe and Tomochichi. The colonists. Progress of Georgia. Spaniards in Florida. Attack on St. Augustine. The Spanish invasion and defeat. The decoy letter and its result. Last days of Oglethorpe.

SUBJECTS FOR STUDY

Illustrate why America deserves to be called the Land of the Free. What persecutions in England led to founding colonies in America? What traces do we still find of the Dutch in New York and of the Quakers in Pennsylvania? Why was John Locke's Grand Model so objectionable to the people of Carolina? Compare the old English law of imprisoning debtors with the customs of today. What was the effect upon all the Southern colonies of the defeat of the Spaniards at St. Simon's Island?

COMPOSITION

Write the supposed speech of Peter Stuyvesant to the Dutch about surrendering their town.

Write a supposed conversation between William Penn and the chief of the Delaware Indians.

Describe the unhappy life of an imprisoned debtor.

MAP QUESTIONS

Trace the voyage of Henry Hudson. Locate St. Mary's. Where is Mason and Dixon's Line? Locate Albemarle Sound, and Cape Fear River. Locate Charleston; Savannah; St. Simon's Island.

CHAPTER V

ESTABLISHMENT OF THE ENGLISH

1. PROGRESS OF VIRGINIA

At the time the Pilgrims came to New England, Virginia was a flourishing colony of four thousand people, living in eleven separate settlements, called by the old English name of boroughs.

In 1624, King James took away the charter of the Virginia Company, and Virginia became a royal province. Its governors were appointed by the king, though the people were still allowed to make many of their laws. The chief reason for this was that the Puritans had gained control of the Company, and King James hated the Puritans. But this was of little moment, for James died the next year and was succeeded by Charles I, who soon had so many troubles of his own that he paid little heed to his colonies in America.

In fact a civil war broke out in England, largely brought about by the determination of Charles to do as he pleased regardless of the will of the people or the action of Parliament. The Puritans had grown so numerous and so strong that they rose in revolt against the king and his party, and under the leadership of Oliver Cromwell, a great Puritan general, defeated the king and had him put to death (1649). Cromwell then became Protector of England, until he died. His son was too weak to carry on the great plans of his father, and so the people, tired of

civil war and strife, recalled the dead king's son from exile, and made him king as Charles II (1660).

All of these dissensions in England had their effect on the history of America. When the Puritans were persecuted under King James they came over and settled in New England in great numbers, where they could be free from persecution. When Cromwell was ruler and the Puritans made life in England too severe for the friends of the king, they also moved over to America to find the kind of life that suited them. America offered then as now a home for the persecuted and distressed of all nations and creeds.

A great many of the friends of King Charles I, who were called Cavaliers, came over and settled in Virginia. In England many of the Cavaliers had been country gentlemen of large estates. When they reached Virginia, they bought large plantations, built beautiful homes on the banks of the rivers, planted broad fields of tobacco and corn, and bought many slaves to work the soil. Among those who came to America during the regime of Cromwell were John Washington, the great-grandfather of George Washington, and the ancestors of Jefferson, Patrick Henry, the Lees, the Randolphs, and other prominent families of Virginia.

It was quite a common thing for a planter to own his own wharf, where he shipped his cargo of tobacco to England, and bought supplies for his own house. There was almost no manufacturing, for everybody preferred farming where land was cheap, slaves could be had in abundance, and the climate was delightful.

In 1642, Sir William Berkeley became the governor of Virginia. He was an aristocrat who cared very little for the common people. He was fond of fine clothes and high living.

He was a brave soldier, a merciless judge, and a devoted friend of King Charles. He did not believe in education, and said that he thanked God there were no free schools and printing presses in Virginia.

Sir William Berkeley and said that he thanked God there were no free schools and printing presses in Virginia.

In 1670, about the time the Dutch were driven from New York, and before Pennsylvania was settled at all, Virginia had forty thousand inhabitants. Berkeley was again governor, and was very unpopular.

Charles II, who was now king, cared much for his ease and very little for his English subjects. He needed revenue for his treasury and proceeded to put into force the Navigation Laws of the kingdom which were directed at the colonies in America. The king had made a law that no Virginian should send any tobacco out of the country except in an English ship, nor buy anything from any country except England. This law put the planters at the mercy of the English traders, who paid very little for tobacco and charged very high for supplies.

In addition to these laws, the foolish king actually gave away all the territory of Virginia to two of his favorites, Lord Arlington and Lord Culpepper. But this gift amounted to nothing, for two men could hardly come over and take possession of a vast territory and forty thousand people.

To make matters worse the Indians began to give trouble: In 1676 they rose and began to massacre the people. It was a terrible attack, and Governor Berkeley refused to send any soldiers to fight them. The people begged him to send troops to protect the farms and drive away the savages, but he refused. At last the people took matters into their own hands.

A wealthy lawyer, Nathaniel Bacon, was selected as the leader. Raising a body of soldiers, he went to fight the

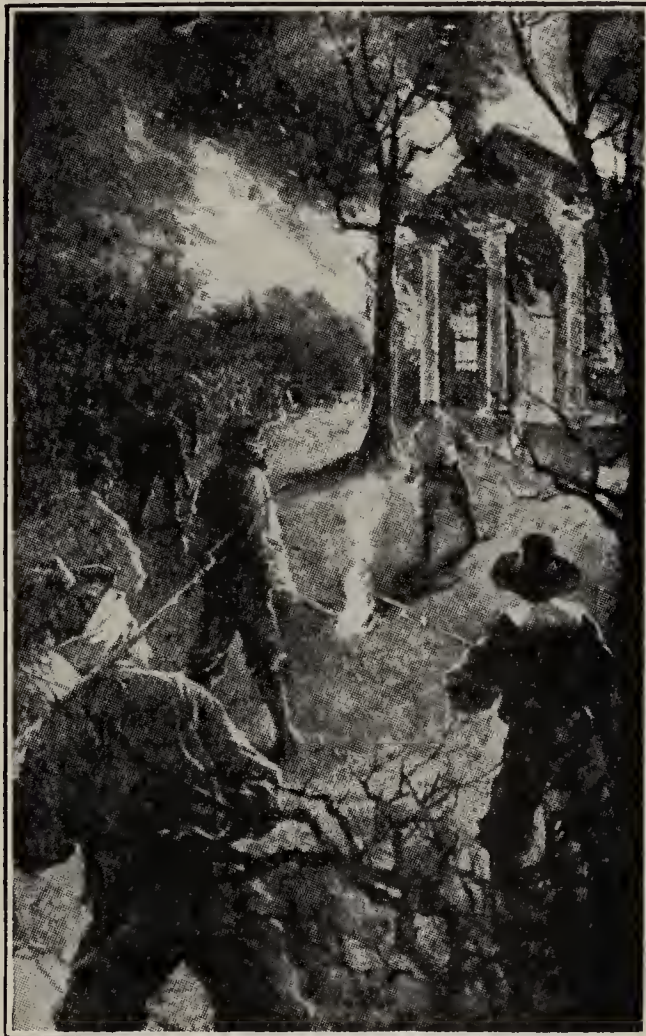
Indians. He was so successful in his attack that the people obeyed him instead of the governor, and asked him to make laws for them. Governor Berkeley became indignant and proclaimed Bacon a rebel. This action caused such a storm of protest from the people that the governor was forced to be more reasonable.

As soon as the Indians started more depredations, Bacon again called on the governor to protect the people, and was again refused. The governor refused him a commission against the Indians. Bacon presented himself in Jamestown at the head of the troops and demanded the right to attack the savages.

A quarrel ensued between them. In a rage Berkeley left the town. Bacon then took charge of Jamestown and, urged by the principal inhabitants, set fire to the town in order to keep

Berkeley from getting it. Some of the soldiers in Bacon's command owned houses, to which they applied the torch themselves. This incident is called "Bacon's Rebellion."

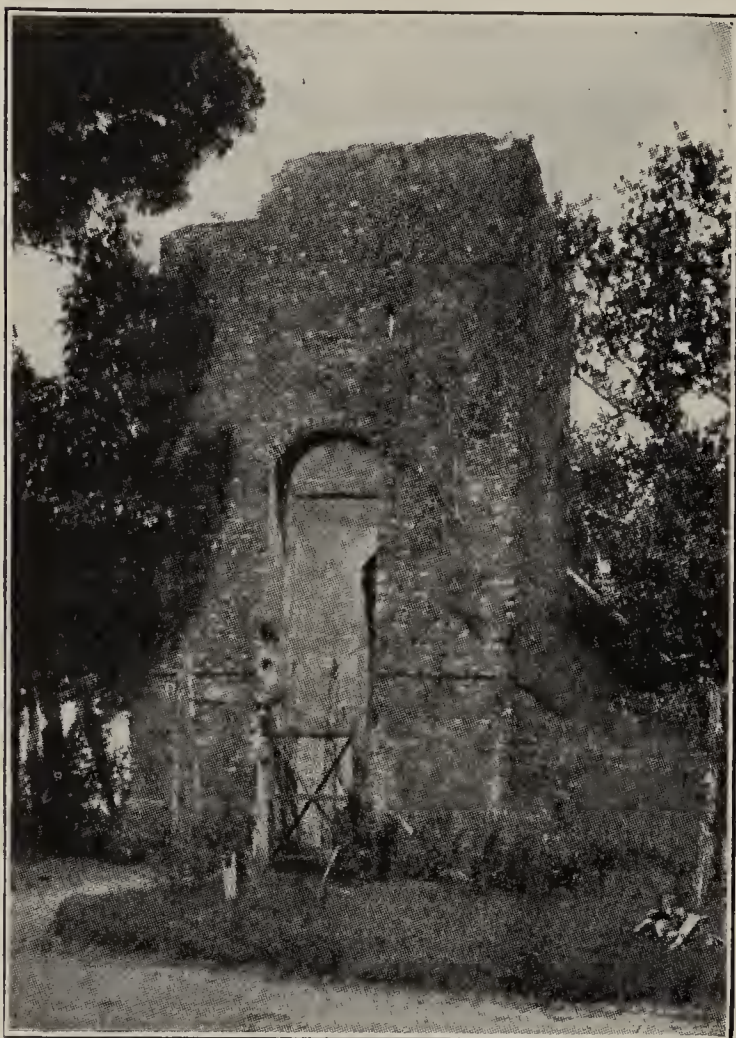
Sad to relate, Bacon was seized with a fever and died a short time afterwards. Berkeley came back to the almost destroyed city, and mercilessly hunted down those who had



THE PEOPLE OF JAMESTOWN BURN THEIR OWN TOWN

been the followers of the brave young leader. He hanged twenty-two and kept others in prison.

When one of Bacon's friends fell into Berkeley's hands, the governor said, "I am very glad to see you. You shall be



THE RUINS AT JAMESTOWN

hanged in a half hour," and so it happened. Soon after, the king called Berkeley back to England, saying, "That old fool has hanged more people in that naked country than I did for the murder of my father."

The capital of Virginia was moved to Williamsburg, and moved to Jamestown

Capital
Williamsburg
went into decay. Those who travel up the James River now may see an old vine-covered tower, which

2. INDIAN WARS IN NEW ENGLAND

While all these white settlements were growing and spreading, the red men of the forest looked on in wonder and often in distrust. The white men generally tried to be friendly with

the Indians. Going into their villages, they made them presents of axes, tools, and gaudy jewelry. In return the Indians wandered through the white settlements, bringing furs, corn, meat, tobacco, and other articles to sell. They came without notice and stayed without fear. In all the villages it was a familiar sight to see any number of Indians standing around or sitting on the ground offering their wares for sale.



MAP OF THE NEW ENGLAND TRIBES

The Indians taught the white men many useful things about the woods and the wild life of the New World. They taught them how to make snowshoes broad and light, so that a man could not only walk but could actually run on top of the deep snow. They taught them how to make a canoe out of birch bark, so light that a man could carry it on his back, but so strong that it could hold two men and shoot the rapids of a river.

What the
Indians
taught the
white men*

The white men learned all the tricks of imitating the cries of the wild turkey, of stalking the deer by day and by

night, of spearing fish in the rivers, of hunting in scattered parties, of lying concealed in the bushes, of traveling through the woods single file so that many men made the track of but one by stepping carefully in the same footprints. The white settlers soon became almost as skilled in woodcraft as the Indians themselves.

Many white men were anxious to convert the Indians to Christianity. John Eliot, a preacher in Massachusetts, who was called "the Apostle to the Indians," translated the Bible into their language, and preached the gospel to thousands of them. His sermons were long, often lasting two or three hours, and he had to keep his audience awake by distributing food and presents while he preached.

It was said that there were four thousand converted Indians in Massachusetts at one time. These were called "praying Indians" by the others. The medicine men and the chiefs did not look with much favor on this kind of religion, because it would keep the Indians from murder and scalping, and other occupations agreeable to the savage nature.

In addition to this, schools were introduced among the savages, and many of them were taught to read and write. Strict justice was enforced regarding the buying of lands from the Indians. No land was ever taken from them without their price being paid for it, though their price was often a trifle.

The Indians, however, were treacherous, and the colonists had to be always on their guard. The settlers who lived on farms were in constant fear that the savages who appeared so friendly might at any time turn into deadly enemies, murdering the settlers' families and burning their homes.

It was against the law for a white man to sell an Indian a gun, to give him powder, or sell him whisky to drink.

Unfortunately those laws were not obeyed. The Indians had guns and powder in abundance, and soon learned to be wonderful marksmen. They also learned to drink whisky, and became dangerous neighbors when drunk. The Indians did not know how to make powder, and thought it grew in the



A BLOCKHOUSE OFTEN STOOD UPON AN EMINENCE FOR INCREASED PROTECTION AGAINST THE INDIANS

ground. They planted some for seed, and could not understand why it did not sprout like any other seed.

To protect themselves, nearly all the small villages had blockhouse forts, and in addition were surrounded by tall wooden fences. The gates and doors were closed at night, and a guard was constantly on watch against the Indians. If signs of Indians appeared to the farmers outside the villages, one of them would quickly and silently go to his neighbors and say, "Indians! Indians!"

Protection
against the
Indians

A tap on the window at night and the dreaded news of warning were enough to arouse the households. Quietly the women and children stole through the darkness into the fort, or block-



ROGER WILLIAMS GOES TO THE TENT OF CANONICUS AND BEGS HIM NOT TO ENGAGE
IN THE PEQUOT WAR

house, for protection. The men would then arm themselves and go into the bushes or woods and find whether savages were lurking about. In spite of all precautions there were many dreadful massacres, and Indian wars were of frequent occurrence.

In the valley of the Thames River in Connecticut dwelt the Pequots. Several white men had been murdered by the Pequots, and the people of Boston sent a force of men to punish them for it. A few Indians were killed, but this served only to enrage the rest, who resolved upon a general uprising and attack on all the white settlements. They tried to get the Narragansetts to help them, but Roger Williams, of whom we have already studied, went to the tent of Canonicus and begged him not to join in the war. The Pequots threatened the life of Roger Williams, but he did not care. He told Canonicus the white people were his brothers and made war on bad Indians only. Canonicus at length agreed not to engage in the war.

The Pequots began their bloody work in Connecticut, attacking the farms and exposed settlements. They lay in ambush along the roads and took captive a The Pequot War number of white men, burning some of them alive, and killing the others by hacking them to pieces with stone hatchets.

The English everywhere were alarmed. The Connecticut towns sent ninety men, and the Massachusetts towns twenty men. These were joined by a friendly band of Mohegan Indians, who had their own quarrels with the terrible Pequots. This band of whites and Indians set out to attack the savages, who had collected in a fort on the Mystic River.

Just before daybreak the attacking party crept up to the fort. A dog barked and aroused the sleeping Indians. The whites, however, were upon them. Firebrands were thrown over the palisades, and the fort and the wigwams took fire. The Indians rushed out and were shot down as they came. Of four hundred warriors, all were killed except five. It was a terrible slaughter, and terrified the other Pequots.

The remainder of the tribe tried to reach the Hudson River and escape. But they were pursued and slain, until hardly one was left alive. The head of one of the chiefs was cut off and put on a pole, where it stayed to warn all Indians of the danger of fighting the white men. This was the end of the Pequots. The war occurred in 1637.



THE PEQUOTS WERE PURSUED AND SLAIN, UNTIL HARDLY ONE WAS LEFT ALIVE

The destruction of the Pequots brought peace for forty years. The Wampanoags were friendly as long as Massasoit lived. Indeed, the old chief had two sons, whom he had baptized with the names Alexander and Philip. No matter what they thought about the English, they remembered the fate of the Pequots and pretended friendship.

After a while Massasoit died, and Philip was chief in his stead. He was a proud warrior, and was called King Philip. **King Philip's War** Trouble soon began. We do not know what started the war. It is quite certain that Philip was of a mean disposition, and hated the whites, who he

thought had no right to be on the land that was once the property of his ancestors.

In 1675 a band of infuriated savages attacked the village of Swansea, as the people were coming from church, and murdered several of the inhabitants. For a year the Indians carried on war, burning houses and killing people, all the



THE INDIANS OF NEW ENGLAND BEGAN WAR BY KILLING SEVERAL PEOPLE OF SWANSEA AS THEY CAME FROM CHURCH

way from the Connecticut River to the neighborhood of Boston.

A force of a thousand white men were in pursuit of Philip and his followers. The Indians were found in the middle of a great swamp near South Kingston in Rhode Island. There were over three thousand warriors in all. The stronghold of the Indians was attacked, captured, and burned, and over seven hundred of the Indians were slain.

King Philip, as he was called, escaped, but was pursued and overtaken in a swamp near Mount Hope. The swamp

was surrounded, and a party went in to capture him. Philip leaped to his feet when he saw his pursuers, and dashed towards a place where a white man with a friendly Indian was on guard. The Indian raised his rifle and shot Philip through the heart. The chief bounded in the air and fell forward in a pool of water. His head was cut off and put on a pole in the town of Plymouth, where it stayed for twenty years. The death of Philip ended the war.



COLONEL GOFFE APPEARS IN THE TOWN OF HADLEY AND LEADS THE PEOPLE AGAINST THE INDIANS

The power of the Indians was broken forever, and the colonies in New England had no more trouble from the savages.

The Indians attacked the town of Hadley, in Massachusetts, during King Philip's War. The men fought the Indians in the streets of the town for a while. They then took refuge in the church where the women and children had gathered.

Just as the Indians were about to attack the church, there appeared a tall man with long gray hair and beard and a sword in his hand. The man said, "Come, follow me."

He led the attack against the savages with such effect that they were soon driven out of the town. The man **Colonel** then vanished as suddenly as he had appeared. **Goffe**

The people thought he was an angel and thanked God for their deliverance.

It is supposed that the man was Colonel Goffe, who had been one of the judges that had condemned Charles I, king of England, to death. Charles II, his son, had sworn to behead all the judges who had acted at the trial of his father, so Colonel Goffe, and another one of the judges, ran away to America and lived in concealment the rest of their lives.

3. THE TYRANNY OF ANDROS

We have seen that nearly all the colonies in America were founded by people seeking freedom from the rule of tyrants or from oppressive laws in the old country. They came to America to find freedom, and they did not propose to have any tyranny after they reached here if they could prevent it.

The New England colonies, and especially Massachusetts, had been very independent and even defiant of the king of England. Indeed, in some respects Massachu- **The inde-** setts had been almost too independent. In seek- **pendence of** ing freedom for their own religious opinions, **the New** the Puritans would not allow Roger Williams, **England** nor Anne Hutchinson, nor the Quakers, to stay in Massachu- **colonies** setts and have religious opinions of their own. They were almost as intolerant as the king himself.

Some of the Massachusetts people, in dissatisfaction, went back to England. They found means to **Massachu-** tell King Charles II what was happening in New **setts loses its** England. They told him that the people col- **charter** lected taxes without his permission, and had even given a

heartily welcome and a hiding place to two of the judges who, while they were in England, had sentenced the king's father to death. They also said that the people did not obey the Navigation Laws, which required all the colonists to trade only with English merchants and to ship their goods in English ships.

All this made the king very angry. He found means to take away the charter of the Massachusetts Company and to make the colony a royal province, of which the governor should be appointed by the king. Thus did Massachusetts lose its charter.

Now Charles II died, and James II became king. He sent over to Massachusetts, in 1686, a governor by the name **Sir Edmund Andros** of Sir Edmund Andros. Andros soon afterwards was made governor of all New England, New York, and New Jersey. He then had a large and royal domain over which he was supposed to be absolute master. He was as much a tyrant as ever Berkeley was in Virginia, and we shall see that he was treated in much the same way.

Andros at once told the people that they had lost their charters, that they did not own their land, and must therefore pay rent for it to the king. He took away from the people the right to make their own laws and levy their own taxes in town meetings. Many men were thrown into prison for small offenses. It was the rule of a tyrant upheld by the king. The people were loud in their complaints against Andros, but they could not help themselves.

Andros went to Connecticut to seize the charter of that colony. He appeared in Hartford at the head **The Connecticut charter** of sixty soldiers, and called a meeting of the townspeople. He sat at a table and listened to the arguments of the citizens against his taking the charter.

After it grew dark, candles were brought in and the talk went on. All this time the charter itself lay in a box on the table, in full sight of everybody, but closely watched by the people.

At last Andros grew tired and ordered the charter to be given to him. At that moment some one blew out the candles, and the room was in complete darkness. Captain Wadsworth, one of the Hartford men, seized the precious paper, felt his way out of the room, and hid the charter in the hollow of an old oak tree near by.

When the candles were relighted, of course the charter was nowhere to be seen. It lay for several years in the old oak tree, which ever since has been called The Charter Oak. This tree stood until 1856, when it was blown down during a violent storm.

Andros went back to Massachusetts and continued his tyrannical rule. Happily this did not last very long. James II was no longer king, and Andros had lost his power. The people promptly threw him into prison and finally sent him back to England.

4. THE FRENCH EXPLORE THE MISSISSIPPI

We have already seen that the English colonies were planted along the Atlantic coast and were firmly established in the New World. All this time the Spaniards were still holding Florida, and the French had been busy in Canada and along the Great Lakes.

The Indians had told of a great river to the west. No one knew what river it was, or into what waters it flowed. We are now to tell the story of how some brave French explorers rowed down this great river, which proved to be the Mississippi.

The French had at first settled at Quebec. From there the traders pushed their way into the woods of Canada, and along the Great Lakes, making forts and settlements, buying furs from the Indians, and selling them whatever they asked for, including firearms and whisky.



MARQUETTE EXPLORES THE MISSISSIPPI

Many priests also went into the wilderness to convert the savages to Christianity. They lived in their villages, spoke their language, and from them learned of the great river that flowed south into an unknown sea.

Among these priests was Father Marquette, who had a mission at the head of the Great Lakes. He resolved to

explore the river of which the Indians had told him, and to preach to the Indians along its banks. At the same time another explorer, Joliet, was bent on exploration. Marquette
and Joliet

The two men decided to go together, and in **May, 1673**, set out on their perilous voyage. With them went five other Frenchmen. The party went in two canoes, taking some corn and smoked meat for food.

Their first course took them across the head of Lake Michigan and then into Green Bay. Here they landed, and Marquette preached to the Indians. He told them of his plans, and begged them to lend him some guides to show the way and help carry the canoes across the swamps. The guides were secured, and lifting the canoes over their heads, the explorers toiled overland until they came to the Wisconsin River. Here they again launched their boats and set out anew on their travels.

In seven days they reached the broad current of the Mississippi River and turned their course southward. For many beautiful days and nights their little craft floated down the great stream, by fertile fields Exploring the
Mississippi in which buffaloes were feeding, through great forests of dense growth, by Indian villages, where the savages were astonished at the strange white color of the voyagers.

It was a long and wonderfully beautiful voyage. At last, after many days, the canoes arrived far down the river, at the mouth of the Arkansas, near the place where De Soto had crossed a hundred and fifty years before.

Here the voyagers landed, and found a large Indian village. The Indians told them of the dangers farther down the river, of the savages to be dreaded, and persuaded the Frenchmen to go no farther.

Marquette and Joliet began the weary journey upstream, not having reached the mouth of the Mississippi. They had seen enough, however, to make them know that the river did not flow into the Pacific Ocean, but did flow into the Gulf of Mexico.

We now come to the story of Robert La Salle, a young French nobleman, who had traveled all over Canada and gained much wealth by trading with the Indians. He resolved to finish the work that Marquette and Joliet had begun. He determined to explore the whole length of the Mississippi, to claim all the territory of its valley



LA SALLE TAKES POSSESSION OF LOUISIANA

and of its tributaries for the French king, and to found a vast empire to the west of the English settlements.

In the spring of 1682 he began his voyage down the Mississippi. He had a large number of whites and Indians, and a fleet of canoes. As they went they marked out sites for

forts, and gave names to places in order to secure possession of the land.

After two months' voyage down the river, having almost the same experiences as Marquette and Joliet, they came to a place where the stream divided into three parts. Some one dipped up a little water to drink, and found it to be slightly



NEW ORLEANS AS IT APPEARED IN 1719

salty. La Salle then knew he was near the mouth of the river.

At last in a few days the canoes glided out of the stream and on to the broad bosom of the gulf. La Salle landed near the mouth of the river, set up a flag and a standard with the arms of France, and in the name of the king took possession of all the lands drained by the Mississippi River. He called the whole country Louisiana, in honor of Louis XIV, who was then king of France.

La Salle returned to Canada as quickly as he could, and then sailed to France, where he told King Louis about his great voyage and the vast country he had claimed for France. He urged the king to plant colonies along the river, for one day all that land would be immensely valuable.

The king sent La Salle with four vessels to found a colony at the mouth of the Mississippi.

When he reached the Gulf of Mexico, La Salle lost his way, passed the mouth of the river, and landed somewhere on the coast of Texas. He tried to find the river, but his followers grew weary of the long marches, and one day they conspired to kill him. One of his men hid in the grass and shot him as he was passing by. The brave La Salle died in a hour, and was buried somewhere in the wild regions around the mouth of the great river he had explored.

France did not forget his great plans, however, and in a few years (1699) the town of Biloxi, in the southern part of the State of Mississippi, was settled. A little later (1718) New Orleans was settled, now the largest city in the Southern States. Thus the French established their claim to an immense tract of land drained by the Mississippi River.

The name Louisiana now belongs to one state, very small in comparison to the territory once called by that name. The French maintained that when a river was discovered, the discoverer could claim all the lands drained by that river and by its tributaries. Nearly half the territory of the United States is drained by the Mississippi and its branches, so that the claims of France and the name of New France covered all the lands in the New World from the Rocky Mountains to the Allegheny Mountains and all the region of Canada.

5. THE FRENCH IN AMERICA

While the English had possession of the Atlantic coast, the French had spread their thin settlements along the St. Lawrence River, thence out to the Great Lakes and

along the Mississippi River. They gradually extended their posts farther and farther, along the Ohio, Wisconsin, and Illinois rivers, claiming all the lands drained by the great rivers, until their lands completely surrounded the lands claimed by the English.



THE FRENCH POSTS WERE STOCKADE FORTS AND WERE CENTERS OF FUR TRADING WITH THE INDIANS

The English settlements were close together, each colony being a town of good size, where houses and churches were built and farms were cultivated. It was not so with the French. Their posts were far apart, ^{French posts} many days' journey from each other, and were mere stockade forts of one or two houses.

These outposts were reached by dim trails through the forests, or by long journeys on the rivers in canoes. At each was a chapel, made of bark and surmounted with a

cross, where the French priests gathered the Indians and the soldiers and preached to them. There was also a storehouse where provisions were kept for the soldiers and traders, and furs were stored as they were bought from the Indians.

One object which the French had in view was the buying of furs. The northwest portion of our country was full of fur-bearing animals, such as the bear, the beaver, the lynx. Indian hunters and trappers would range the deep wilderness in summer and plod through the snow in winter, killing the game, and packing the furs on sleds, or piling them in canoes.

The valuable furs were then brought to the French trading posts. There the traders would bargain for them, giving the Indians long knives, hatchets, axes, whisky, guns, beads, cheap jewelry, and articles of that sort, for the most valuable furs. Furs worth a hundred dollars could often be bought for a mirror or a pocket knife. These furs were collected in great quantities, sent to the nearest fort, and sold to European merchants.

Another object of the French was the noble and unselfish one of converting the savages to Christianity. Among the boldest and most sacrificing of the pioneers we find the French priests. With cross and breviary they pierced the farthest limits of the wilderness, setting up their little chapels in the villages of the Indians, living in their wigwams, teaching them the customs of civilized life, preaching to them of Christianity, enduring all sorts of hardship, and frequently ending their lives in the horrors of savage torture.

It was in this way that the French came to claim all the great interior of North America, the regions of Canada, all the country around the Great Lakes, and all the lands

drained by the Ohio, Missouri, and Mississippi rivers, which was many times more land than the English had, though the English had twenty times more people in America.

Quebec was still the French center and main military post. Here the governor of New France lived. Here came the French vessels to trade, and here gathered the trappers and hunters to dispose of their furs, and buy things with which to delight and delude the savages.

There were many reasons for the French and English quarrels in America. The French claimed a part of the territory of the present State of Maine; so did **Reasons for** the English. The French claimed all the vast **the quarrels** valley of the Mississippi and Ohio rivers; the English did the same. The French wanted to control all the fur trade with the Indians along the Great Lakes and in the West; the English wanted their share. The French were Roman Catholics; the English were Protestants. Finally, the French and the English were at war in Europe, and it could hardly be expected they would live peaceably in America.

A great struggle began between these two nations, to determine which should control the destiny of the New World. If the French won, we should become a French nation. If the English won, we should remain an English nation. This meant a great deal to America.

Count Frontenac was now governor of Canada. He was an old man nearly seventy years of age, but as full of fire and spirit as a man of twenty. He often went **Count** among the Indian allies of the French, decorated **Frontenac** with war paint, and danced with them around their fires. In 1690 he sent a war party down to Schenectady, which surprised the little village at midnight, and murdered sixty people while they were asleep. Some few escaped in their

night clothes, and, half dead with cold and fright, fled to Albany.

Other attacks and massacres occurred from time to time. The villages along the Canadian frontier suffered most. The people were never safe in the fields or at home. They did not know at what time a war whoop would be heard and a dreadful band of painted savages led by French officers would burst upon them with tomahawk and firebrand.

To put a stop to all this, the people of New England sent an army against Quebec and another against Montreal, but these were no match for Count Frontenac, and but little came of their efforts. This first war, from 1690 to 1697, was in America known as King William's War, because William III was king of England at the time. It came to an end by a treaty of peace between England and France.

Both sides rested for five or six years, until King William died, and the war broke out again. The second war was over here called Queen Anne's War, because Anne was now queen of England. This began in 1702 and lasted twelve years.

The Indians always played an important part in these wars, some being on the French side, and some on the English. An attack was made on Deerfield in Massachusetts, where the savages descended on the town and drove the people into one of the large houses. They then knocked the door to pieces, thrust their muskets through the cracks, and killed a woman who was inside. As usual, they marched off with their captives as quickly as they had come.

After twelve years of war, a treaty was again made between France and England, by which France gave up her claim to the territory of Maine and Nova Scotia and the Hudson Bay country. After that there was no longer any quarrel over

the territory to the north. France had made her first concession to the arms of England.

King William's War and Queen Anne's War came close together. There came a long peace, lasting thirty years, before the third war of the series was fought. In the meantime the English colonies kept gaining in numbers and strength.



DURING QUEEN ANNE'S WAR THE INDIANS ATTACKED THE TOWN OF DEERFIELD, MASS.

The Carolinas and Georgia had become flourishing colonies, and every year saw thousands of people landing upon our shores and seeking homes in America.

The French were not idle. They still insisted upon their rights of possession along the Mississippi and Ohio, and extended their settlements and forts all the way from Canada to New Orleans. The question of who should control in America was far from settled yet.

In 1744 war broke out afresh between France and England, and lasted five years. This war was in America called King George's War, because George II was then king of England. The main event of this war was the capture of the French fort, Louisburg, which lay at the mouth of the St. Lawrence River. It had cost several million dollars, was built of heavy stone, and the French thought it could not be taken. In this they were proved to be mistaken, for the English captured it after a siege of six weeks. The French were greatly surprised at this, and the English everywhere celebrated the victory with bonfires, speeches, and rejoicing.

The people of New England were deeply wrathful, when the war ended, to find that the English had given Louisburg back to the French in exchange for another city on the other side of the globe. They knew that the fortress was very important and would have to be conquered again.

6. THE FRENCH AND INDIAN WAR

The French and English were getting ready for their final struggle to settle the old question of who should control the Mississippi and Ohio valleys. It had been in dispute for nearly a hundred years. The Ohio Valley was the scene of the opening struggle.

To exclude the French from the Ohio Valley, a company was formed by the English known as the Ohio Company, which proceeded to colonize that territory in order to keep the French away. The French heard of this, and promptly appeared on the Ohio with a body of men, who drove away the English traders and sent word to the Governor of Pennsylvania not to allow any more Englishmen upon the lands of France.

In the spring of 1753 Duquesne, who was the French Governor of Canada, sent an exploring party down the Allegheny River to colonize the territory. He coolly declared that the land belonged to the French, and he proposed to keep it. When the Virginians heard of this they were indignant and Governor Dinwiddie resolved to send the French commander a letter, asking him by what authority he had come into that land, and requesting him to leave it.

The governor wanted some one of courage and experience

The message to the French settlements to take the note. He selected George Washington, who at that time was twenty-one years old. The young man appeared before the governor and received his instructions. The place where he was to go was five hundred miles away, beyond a tangled wilderness, beset by savages and dangers of all kinds.



GEORGE WASHINGTON APPEARS BEFORE GOVERNOR DINWIDDIE TO RECEIVE INSTRUCTIONS

When he and his companions reached the French settlement on the Allegheny River, they found the officer busily engaged in building his fort. Washington gave him the letter of Governor Dinwiddie. The officer read it and said, "I am acting under orders of the Governor of Canada, and cannot leave this place. It is his intention to occupy this land and to keep every Englishman out of it."

Having received the reply of the officer, Washington and his men started on their journey homeward. The return was even worse than the going. It was the **The return** depth of winter, the weather was intensely cold, and the rivers were full of ice. There was hardly any chance of getting a fire, and their clothes froze to their limbs. They waded through swamps and creeks until their tired pack-horses gave out and refused to go any farther. Washington and one of his companions gave up their horses and trudged on foot for the rest of the way.

At last, after traveling a thousand miles, the party reached home, and Washington took the officer's letter to Governor Dinwiddie. The reply, of course, called for war. There was nothing else to do. This action of the French brought on the great French and Indian War.

War between the French and the English began in earnest. The French completed the fort they had begun on the Alle- **Fort Du-** gheny River and called it Fort Duquesne. **quesne** The English under Washington moved into the neighborhood, and built a fort which they called Fort Necessity. The French, however, were stronger than the Virginians, and they captured Washington's fort, driving the Virginians away.

The English promptly prepared for war. The English government sent an army of soldiers under General Braddock. Braddock was a brave soldier, who could do very well in ordinary warfare, but fighting Indians in the woods was something he knew nothing about.

Braddock landed in Virginia, and after many delays started **General** through the wilderness after the French at Fort **Braddock** Duquesne. Washington went with him as one of his officers.

After a month's slow marching the army was within a few miles of the French fort. Suddenly, without any warning, Braddock found himself surrounded on all sides by French and Indians, who, hidden behind trees and lying in the bushes, opened a terrible fire upon the almost defenseless English.

Braddock did not know what to do with an enemy he could not see. He ordered his soldiers to stand in line and fire at the bushes where the savages were hidden. Their bullets were buried in the trunks of trees, while the deadly aim of the Indians and French mowed down the English troops. Washington begged Braddock to order his men into the woods for protection and to fight behind trees as the savages did. Braddock was obstinate and kept his men in line.



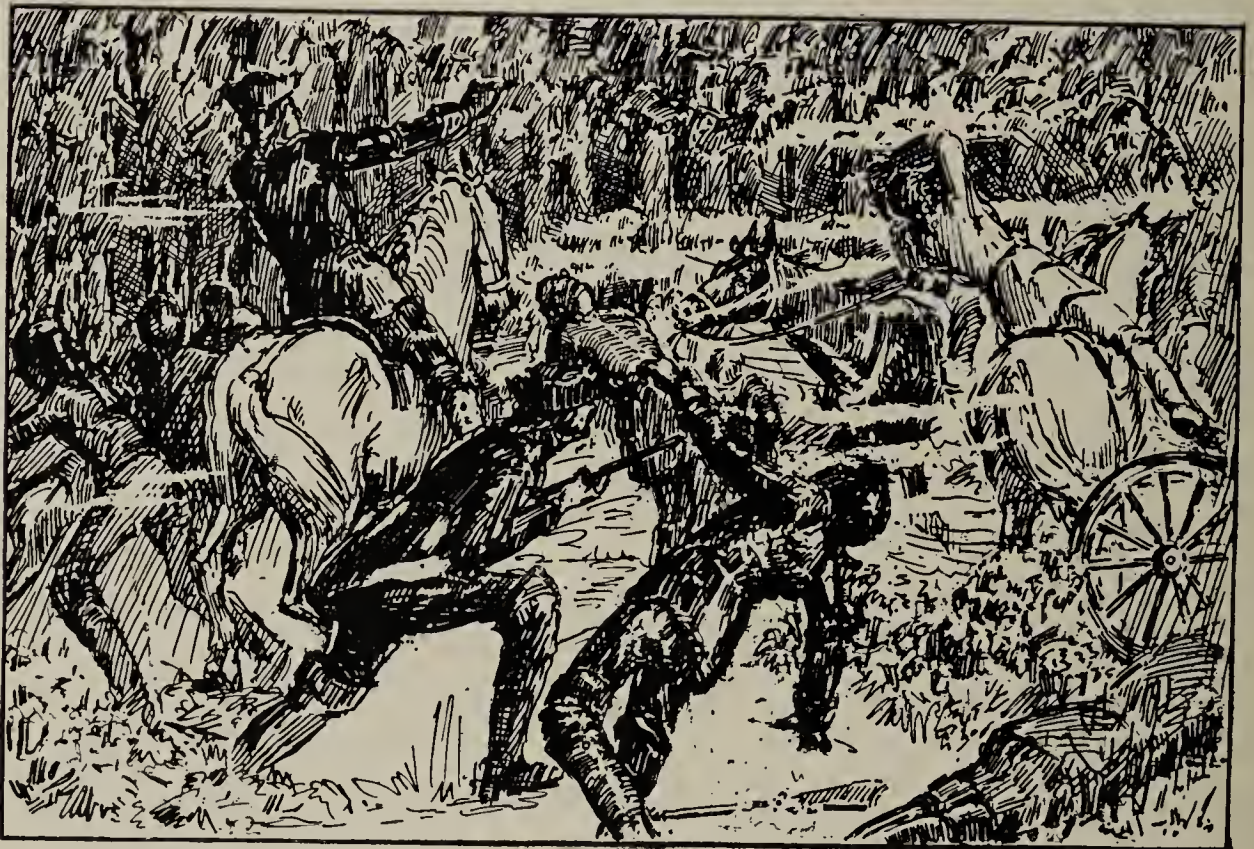
THE FRENCH IN THE OHIO VALLEY

Finally the soldiers could endure it no longer. They broke ranks and ran for safety. Braddock stormed and tried to beat them back into line. Four horses were killed under him, and he mounted a fifth. Washington did all he could to save the day. Two horses were killed under him, and his clothes were pierced by bullets.

At last Braddock was shot through the lungs and fell from his horse, and Washington drew the body of the troops out of danger. Braddock died soon after, saying in his delirium, "We shall know better how to

deal with them next time.” Whether he meant the Indians or his own troops nobody knows, but the general paid the penalty for his obstinacy.

This battle took place July 9, 1755, and is known as “Braddock’s Defeat.” The Indians now flocked to the side



BRADDOCK'S ARMY IS DEFEATED IN AN AMBUSH, JULY, 1755

of the French, while the English were greatly discouraged at this bad beginning.

The war now took another field. In the upper part of New York State on Lake George, the French were defeated by the English in a bloody battle, and Fort William Henry was built to command the headwaters of the Hudson River. This fortress was captured in 1757 by the French, and the English soldiers were promised a safe return to their homes. As soon as they left the fort, however, the savages, who could not be held in check by the

Progress of
the war

French officers, fell upon the prisoners and murdered every one of them.

In 1758, Louisburg, which we remember had been returned to the French, was captured again by the English. In the same year Fort Duquesne was captured from the French



THE ACADIANS IN NOVA SCOTIA ARE DRIVEN FROM THEIR HOMES ON ACCOUNT OF THEIR SYMPATHY FOR THE FRENCH

and its name changed to Fort Pitt. The city of Pittsburgh has since been built upon its site.

Washington himself was present when the French left Fort Duquesne, and the English flag was planted on its ramparts by his own hand. When he went back to Virginia he was chosen a member of the House of Burgesses.

The sad story of the Acadians belongs to this part of our history. They were a simple peasant people living in Nova Scotia. Their sympathies were with the French, and they refused to take the oath

The expulsion
of the
Acadians

of allegiance to the king of England. They wished to be neutral in the war, and begged to be let alone by both sides.

This the English would not allow. They entered upon the lands of the Acadians, burned their houses, and at the point of the bayonet forced them on board waiting ships. Families were separated in the confusion, never to be reunited. Seven thousand of these people were distributed among the various colonies by this cruel act, and many sad afflictions befell the unhappy people.

7. THE FALL OF QUEBEC

At this same time a great war was going on in Europe, which was known as the Seven Years' War. France was in league with Austria and Russia against Prussia and England. In this way nearly every European city was a rally camp for troops, and nearly every country was a battlefield. The war in America was a part of the Seven Years' War, though here it is known as the French and Indian War.

The great English statesman, William Pitt, was dissatisfied with the way the war was carried on in America, and determined to make a bold effort to end it. To do this he knew that it was necessary to capture the city of Quebec in Canada. For this purpose he chose one of the bravest officers in the English army. His name was James Wolfe.

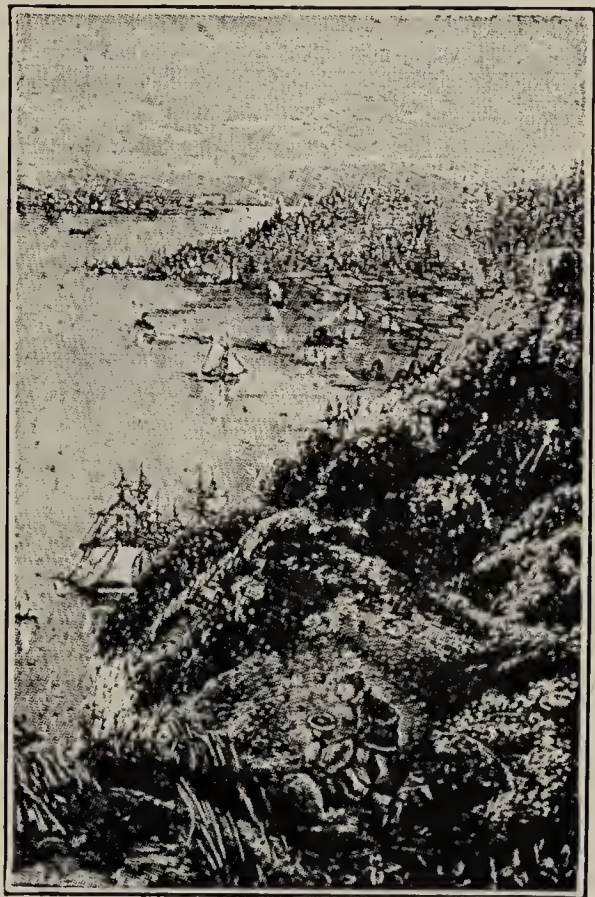
A part of the town of Quebec is situated on a hill three hundred feet above the river. The top of this hill is called the Heights of Abraham. The lower town along the river was easy enough to capture, but it was no slight task to climb a precipice and conquer a strong citadel full of brave men, especially when they were under the command of so able a soldier as the French general, Marquis de Montcalm.

For two months and a half the English laid siege to Quebec. Wolfe was ill with fever nearly all the time, but never failed in his industry and vigilance. He directed every movement and planned every attack, but Montcalm on the Heights with his seven thousand men was too strong to be captured. Wolfe was discouraged, and knew that the citadel could be captured only by a bold stroke. He, therefore, decided upon a desperate plan.

Montcalm had guarded every approach to his citadel, except on one side where the rocks were so steep that he thought no one could possibly climb them. Only a few pickets were placed there as sentinels. It was up this precipice that Wolfe decided to climb with his army. On the day before the attack he was very ill. He made his will, sent for a friend, and told him he doubted whether he should be alive many days.

On the night of **September 12, 1759**, the English lowered their boats from the ships, and the soldiers quietly took their places. With muffled oars they glided up the river past the French batteries. Not a sound was uttered. Wolfe was in the foremost boat. The troops landed silently and began two by two to pull themselves up the steep rocks.

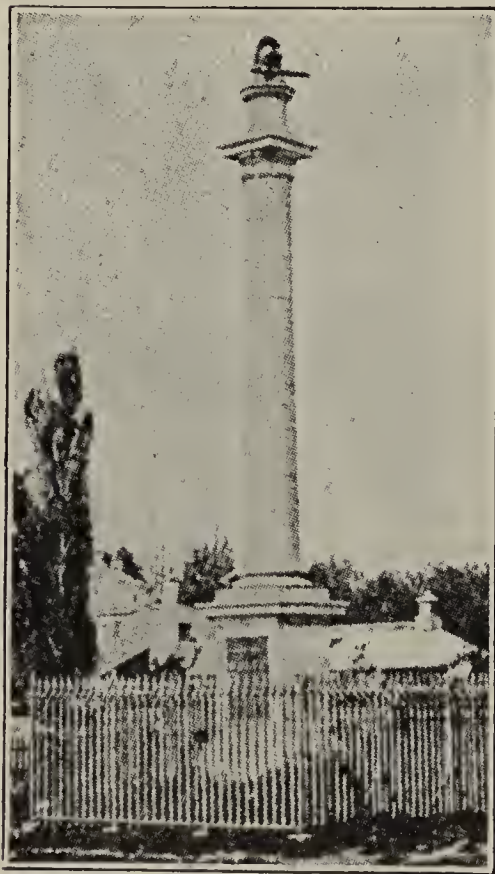
When near the top, one of the men made a noise, and a



WOLFE'S COVE, QUEBEC

picket cried out, "Who goes there?" An English captain answered, "The French." The sentinel demanded, "What regiment?" The captain replied, "The Queen's." The sentinel was satisfied, and the English passed on.

In the morning, great was Montcalm's surprise to find Wolfe and his army before the fort, on the broad plain which is known as the Plains of Abraham. At eight o'clock the battle began. Wolfe, sick as he was, led his men to the attack, and was shot down by a French bullet. He said to one of his aids, "Support me. Do not let my men



WOLFE'S MONUMENT

see me fall." He was then borne from the field. As he lay dying he heard the cry, "They run! They run!" "Who run?" he asked. "The French," was the reply. "God be praised," said he, "I die in peace." Thus expired the brave General Wolfe just as his men were driving the French out of Quebec.

In another part of the field Montcalm lay dying, wounded by a shot from the English. When he heard of the disaster to his troops, he said, "Thank God, I shall not live to see Quebec surrender." In a few days the garrison surrendered to the British.

Four years later peace was signed between France and England, in which the French gave up all of Canada, and all their possessions east of the Mississippi. As France had already ceded to Spain "the island of New Orleans" and all

the territory of Louisiana, she was now left without any possessions in North America.

TOPICS

Progress of Virginia. Virginia a royal province. Chief reason for change. Civil war in England. Oliver Cromwell. Charles II. Effect on America. Cavaliers in Virginia; mode of life. Character of Sir William Berkeley. Character of Charles II. Navigation Laws. Arlington and Culpepper. Trouble with the Indians. Nathaniel Bacon. Berkeley's action. Bacon's Rebellion. Berkeley's cruelty. His recall. Moving the capital.

Indian Wars of New England. The white men and the Indians. What the Indians taught the white men; what the white men learned of the ways of the Indians. John Eliot and his preaching; how the Indians received religion in schools. Justice to the Indians. Fear of the Indians. Selling guns and whisky. Blockhouse forts. The Pequots. Roger Williams. How the war began. Slaughter of the Pequots. End of the war. King Philip. Attack on Swansea. Pursuit of Philip; death of King Philip. Colonel Goffe.

The Tyranny of Andros. How the colonists in Massachusetts showed their intolerance. Reports to the king. Taking away the charter. Sir Edmund Andros. The beginning of his tyranny. Demands the Connecticut charter; seizing the charter; Charter Oak. Fate of Andros.

The French Explore the Mississippi. French settlements; the traders; priests; Marquette; Joliet. Their first course. Exploring the Mississippi. Landing. Return. La Salle; his determination; his voyage; his landing. Taking possession of land; Louisiana. His return, and reports to King Louis. Last days of La Salle. Settlement in Louisiana. New France.

The French in America. Extension of French posts; character of posts; how reached; chapels; storehouses. Fur trading. French priests in the wilderness. Extent of French claims. Quebec center of trade. The reasons for French and English quarrels in America. Count Frontenac. Attack on Schenectady. Terror of border towns. King William's War. Queen Anne's War. Attack on Deerfield. Rest for thirty years. King George's War. Capture of Louisburg.

French and Indian War. The scene of the struggle. The Ohio Company. Driving away the English traders. French on the Allegheny River. Governor Dinwiddie. George Washington. Carrying the message; the reply; the return journey; hardships and dangers. Fort Duquesne. Fort Necessity. General Braddock. The march and the ambush. The battle. Braddock's defeat. The war on Lake George. Louisburg. Pittsburgh. The story of the Acadians.

The Fall of Quebec. The Seven Years' War. William Pitt. Plan to capture Quebec. James Wolfe. Montcalm. Siege of Quebec. Wolfe's decision; the attack on Quebec. The capture. Fate of Wolfe and Montcalm. End of war and condition of treaty of peace.

SUBJECTS FOR STUDY

Discuss the effect upon American colonization of the religious wars and persecutions in England. Discuss the treatment of the Indians by the white people. What was the difference between the French and the English settlement? Why are we so largely an English people, instead of French or Spanish?

COMPOSITION

Suppose you lived in a frontier home and write some of your experiences.

Write a description of an Indian attack and how you escaped into a blockhouse.

Write the account of an eyewitness to the hiding of the Connecticut charter.

Write a description of the life of a wood ranger hunting for furs.

MAP QUESTIONS

Locate the Thames River; the Mystic River; Swansea; Hadley. Trace the voyage of Marquette and Joliet; La Salle. Locate Biloxi; Schenectady; Louisburg. Trace the journey of George Washington to the French fort. Locate the place of Braddock's defeat. Where is Nova Scotia?

Collateral Reading. "Evangeline," by Longfellow.



TERRITORY BEFORE THE FRENCH AND INDIAN WAR (1755)



TERRITORY AFTER THE FRENCH AND INDIAN WAR (1763)

CHAPTER VI

LIFE IN THE COLONIES

1. COLONIAL GOVERNMENT

The French and Indian War was over, and the English colonies were firmly established in America. Virginia was now about one hundred and fifty years old. It was the largest of the colonies, having over a quarter of a million of people. Massachusetts was second in size, and Pennsylvania third. Georgia was the youngest colony, being now about thirty years old. All together, at the close of the French and Indian War there were probably one million and a half people in the English colonies in America.

There were no large cities, such as we have today. Philadelphia was the largest, having a population of twenty-five thousand. Boston, New York, and Charleston were the other large towns. The people were scattered in small villages and farming settlements along the seaboard from Maine to Florida. The settlements were fewer and the population thinner the further they were from the coast. In the Ohio villages beyond the Allegheny Mountains, there were only a few traders and an occasional settlement of adventurous pioneers.

All the thirteen colonies received their forms of government from the crown. Each colony was independent of every other colony, having its own assembly and its own governor. These governments may be divided into three classes, according to their nature:

1. The royal colonies, — New Hampshire, New York, New Jersey, Virginia, North Carolina, South Carolina, Georgia.

2. The proprietary colonies, — Maryland, Delaware, Pennsylvania.

3. The charter colonies, — Rhode Island, Connecticut, Massachusetts.

In the royal colonies the king appointed the governor; in the proprietary colonies the governor was appointed by the proprietor; in the charter colonies the people had the right to manage their own affairs under the terms of the charter granted them. In each royal and proprietary colony there was a council appointed by the crown or by the proprietor, and an assembly elected by the people. In most cases the laws passed by the colonists had to be approved by the king or by the proprietor. There was some variation in the government of nearly all the colonies, however, and but few colonies were satisfied with the method by which the laws were made and approved.

Many of the governors were honest and faithful, but few of them were competent, and a large number were tyrannical and unjust, selling the offices at their disposal, and caring little for the welfare of the people. The only check upon them was the power of the assembly to vote taxes and order supplies. In case the governor refused to approve the laws passed by the assembly, then that body might refuse to grant him his salary or any money to run the government.

In this way there was constant conflict between the people and the authority designated by foreign power to rule over them. In the charter colonies, except in Massachusetts, the governors were elected by the people, and consequently there

was less liability to a conflict between the people and the governors.

In methods of local self-government there was a difference among the colonies, depending largely upon the difference in their conditions. In New England, where the **New England** winters were long and cold and the roads were **settlements** in bad condition much of the year, and where the Indians were most unfriendly, it was necessary for the people to settle in small towns, close together for protection and comfort.

There were no great plantations or fertile areas owned by any one man, in which slaves cultivated the crops, but the farms were small, and were worked by the owners. Another reason for the compact settlements of New England was the desire of the people to attend the same church as a body or congregation.

Under these conditions grew up the New England township, which not only included the town itself but all the little farms close by. These townships were governed by a town meeting at which all the people gathered **The township** and discussed the town affairs. The officers were elected, taxes were levied, local laws were made, and public questions were discussed.

Here the people ruled themselves and learned how to manage their own affairs. In the town hall the orators debated town questions, and the people voted as they were inclined. It was the pure form of democracy and the best possible school for teaching the people the meaning of independence.

In addition to the town hall, each township had its own church, which was controlled by the congregation. **The church** The men elected the preacher, and decided upon the business interests of the church. They would not hesitate to criticize the doctrines of the parson and to decide

the kind of sermons they were willing to hear. These contentions often led to factions and disputes among the congregation. These debates in the town halls, and these differences in the churches, led to serious discord at times and were often the occasion of a large number of the people moving from one town to settle elsewhere and begin a separate town for themselves. The township system still exists in many parts of New England.

In Virginia the conditions were quite different from New England. The winters were short and not severe, the roads were open most of the year, the soil was fertile, and the settlers naturally turned to farming and the owning of slaves and large estates. Under these conditions, the population was spread out over large areas rather than condensed into towns and villages.

This made the county form of government necessary. The chief county officer was the sheriff. Next to him was the colonel, whose duties were largely military. Local government was in the hands of the county court, whose members were usually appointed by the governor.

Instead of the town meeting of New England, the people of Virginia had their court days, in which they came from all parts of the county to the court house, which generally occupied a prominent place in the center of the town. Here the people gathered to hear political speeches, discuss the affairs of the county, and engage in private business.

Friends would meet by appointment on those days for reunions, candidates for office would come to meet the people, and sports and pastimes would be indulged in. It was by this means that the Virginian and other Southern colonists decided upon their office holders and the policy of their

colonies in many matters. The county system of government still prevails in the Southern States.

2. THE HOMES OF THE COLONISTS

When the first settlers came to America they found great forests, with plenty of wood, but, having no sawmills and but few saws to cut boards, many people were **Pioneer** forced to live in caves dug out of the sides of **homes** the hills. These were used for a short time only, and soon gave way to the log cabin.



A PIONEER'S HOUSE IN THE WILDERNESS. FROM SUCH HOMES HAVE COME MANY OF THE GREATEST MEN OF THE NATION

A log cabin was made of round logs, notched at the ends so that they would fit together. The spaces between the logs were filled with mud or straw to keep out the wind and cold. The roof was made of long shingles, split with an ax. There was also a rude chimney made of mud and sticks.

This made a comfortable house in summer time, but it

was cold in winter. The log cabin for a long time was the only kind of house the farmers had. After a while in the villages a better sort appeared. As the people prospered they gradually built larger and more comfortable houses, just as they do in this day.

There was no glass to be had for the early homes. The colonists frequently used oiled paper in the window openings, which let in some light, but their main dependence was



A NEW ENGLAND FIRESIDE

upon the great fireplace, and the huge fire, which served for both light and heat.

Often there were no wooden floors to the houses, but the ground was packed hard and covered with sand. Some-

times the people used candles for light, as there were no lamps and kerosene oil such as we now have. Even candles had to be made at home, and were considered a great luxury.

Let us look into one of the homes of the early colonists after dark. We find a great roaring fire in the chimney, with a big backlog, glowing hot, and fat wood burning around it. The flames leap up the chimney, giving out a splendid heat, but if it is very cold outside our backs will almost freeze while our faces scorch.

A look
inside

Around the fire are benches or stools on which the family sit, the women knitting woollen socks or making shirts, coats, trousers, and indeed all the garments that the family wear. The men are cleaning their guns, mending their tools, and helping with the housework. The supper is being cooked in

kettles, pots, or ovens before the fire, for there are as yet no stoves in the colonies.

When the food is ready — and it probably consists of corn-meal mush or corn bread in some form, beans, pork, or game from the woods — it is all put into wooden bowls or trenchers, and set on a rough table. Everybody eats out of wooden plates, or, if the family is well off, out of shining pewter platters, and since there are no forks, everybody must eat with the fingers. There is plenty of food, and hard work has made hearty appetites.

The talk is about the governor, and the ships coming over from England, or about the fishing and the game to be had; then about the farm and the crops for next year, the corn, and the Indians that have been giving trouble.

Perhaps the family will drink a little cider or home-brewed beer, and crack some nuts that the children have gathered from the woods. After a short while the fire is covered over with ashes to keep it alive, for there are no matches to light another one, and everybody goes to bed early, perhaps sleeping on dry hemlock boughs instead of mattresses.

As the country prospered, however, better homes were built, of two stories, with glass windows, and painted. Furniture was brought over from England, and the wealthy merchants of New England surrounded themselves with the comforts their fathers had known in the old country. Some of these houses were even mansions in their proportions, where gay parties, balls, and receptions were given.

In Virginia the rich planters' homes were built on the slopes leading down to the rivers, where often **Virginia** the planters owned their own wharves, to which **mansions** ships came to load and unload. These mansions were tall white houses, with wide halls and great verandas.

Here the planters lived in princely fashion. There were log cabins near by for the slaves, stables for fine horses, kennels for dogs, houses for overseers, and hundreds of broad, rich acres in every direction. Inside were rich furniture from England, carpets on the floors, silver and glass for the table, and an abounding hospitality.

There were few inns and taverns to be found along the roads, and those were of so bad a sort that the hospitable



A COLONIAL MANSION IN VIRGINIA

planters invited all travelers into their homes. It is said that some of the planters stationed negro servants at the gates along the highways to invite travelers to come in and take a meal or spend the night.

The planters themselves always cordially welcomed the stranger, were glad to get his news from other towns, put before him the best food and wine, and gave him the best bed in the house. In this way Southern hospitality and a Virginia welcome became proverbial.

In the early days of America the cities were small and the people had but few of the comforts of modern times. The

streets were dirty and badly paved, or not paved at all, and were at first unlighted, since nobody was expected to be abroad after dark. New York at first adopted the custom of lighting the streets by making the occupant of every seventh house hang out a pole on which was a lantern and candle. The watchman on his first night round cried out "Lantern and candle. Hang out your light."

The watchman was called the rattler watch, because he carried a large rattle to frighten any thieves. He also carried a long staff and a lantern to assist belated citizens to their houses. All night long the watch called out the hour, such as "Midnight and all's well," or "One o'clock and cloudy skies," so that the citizens in bed could tell the hour and weather.

In all the towns each family had buckets made of leather, and marked with the owner's name. These buckets were set ready for use in case of fire anywhere in the village. As soon as an alarm was given, every man grabbed his bucket and ran to the fire. On reaching the fire a double line was formed, leading from the fire to the nearest well or pond or stream. The buckets were filled with water and passed up one line, and after being emptied on the fire, the empty ones were passed down the other line. Thus a constant supply of water was carried up to the fire. After the fire was over, every man found his bucket and made his way home.

3. OCCUPATIONS, DRESS, SPORTS

The occupations of the colonists were mainly farming, fishing, and trading. Of course, there were a few small factories and shops for making furniture, clothes, shoes, and other articles the people needed, but as a rule most of the supplies the colonists used were brought from England.

In New England, and the Northern colonies generally, the farms were small. The people raised corn, beans, squash, and other vegetables. Fishing and shipbuilding occupied most of the attention of the people. This called for shipbuilders, carpenters, ropemakers, sailmakers, and stores for ship supplies. Fishing vessels went out for codfish, and larger ships went in search of whales for oil and whalebone.

These ships, loaded with lumber, dried fish, whale oil, furs, and corn, traded along the coasts as far as the West Indies, and even sailed to Europe. The ships returned with tobacco, sugar, cotton, molasses, from the Southern ports, and furniture, clothing, tools, hats, carpets, and other necessary supplies from Europe.

In New York the people found the fur trade to be the most profitable. The old Dutch colonists made friends with the Indians easily, and were not far from the trading posts on the St. Lawrence River. In Pennsylvania there were great fields of grain. The Dutch had wandered into this section, had found the land fertile, had cultivated large areas of corn and wheat, and built fine mills, so that the grain from other colonies was often sent there to be ground.

In the Southern colonies the people were almost entirely farmers. Tobacco, rice, indigo, and corn were the principal products. The farms were large, negro slaves were cheap and readily bought from the slave ships, the climate was mild and the weather pleasant nearly all the time.

As far as clothes were concerned, many of the pioneers had to depend upon their guns to give them fur to wear instead of cloth. Breeches made of deerskin, moccasins for

the feet, hats made of beaver skin or raccoon skin, were commonly worn. At first there were laws against wearing fine clothes, but after a while the wealthy **Clothing** insisted on bringing in rich silks and laces from England for their wives.

Even men sometimes wore fine embroidered clothes, especially when they went to receptions or on great occasions. The women wore high-heeled shoes, hoop skirts, and sometimes masks of cloth and velvet to protect their complexion from the sun. Among the rich people there was almost as much style and expense of dress as there was in England.

In the old days there was not much time for sports. Life was too hard for much diversion, and the Puritan idea of severe living gave no thought for pleasure. There were sports of the woods, such as hunting **Sports** wolves and bears, which when caught were sometimes tied to a stake and made to fight dogs for the amusement of the crowd.

On cold moonlight nights a load of codfish heads would be placed by the side of a fence or a wall, and hunters would hide near by to kill the prowling foxes. Shooting at a mark for a prize was a great diversion. To be the best shot in a town was no easy matter, where every man had to be a marksman to protect his home from Indians and provide his family with food.

So far as dancing, card-playing, and theater-going were concerned, these were severely frowned upon by the New England people for a long time. Such pleasures were not proper for young men and maidens.

Later on, however, we hear of parties being given, and in some of the old papers we read of balls in New England where the young people danced until late hours. At these

balls or receptions the men wore their finest clothes, and the women wore silks and brocade almost stiff enough to stand alone.

In the Southern Colonies the spirit of pleasure was freer, and life was not so severe. The planters generally had good pleasures in horses, and fox-hunting was a favorite sport. the South A pack of fine dogs was sent after a fox, the riders on horses following them for many miles, through woods and fields, until the fox was caught and killed. Horse-racing was popular, since many planters raised valuable stock and prided themselves on the speed and endurance of their thoroughbred horses.

In the better class of Southern homes there were often scenes of great gayety. There was much feasting, dancing, and fine dressing, while family and friends gathered from far and near to celebrate some festival of the year or some happy occasion in the family.

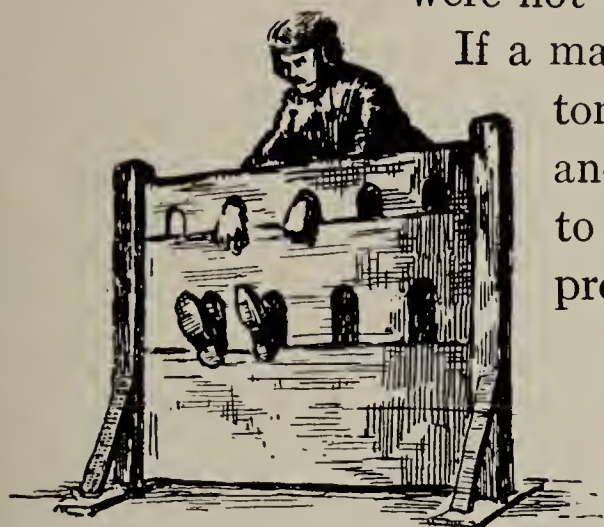
The people of New York followed the holiday habit of Holland, and the Dutch seasons of rejoicing were frequent and joyous occasions. It is to them that we owe Dutch holidays many of the pleasures of Christmas and the hanging up of stockings for the visits of Santa Claus. They celebrated New Year's Day, with visits to friends and with feasting and drinking. Then came St. Valentine's Day, Easter celebrations, May Day and dancing around the May-pole, in all of which the happy, thrifty Dutch set the colonists a good example of simple, homely happiness.

4. LAWS, TRAVEL, CUSTOMS

Our forefathers had many laws and customs that seem curious to us nowadays. There were laws against lying, against talking too much, against staying away from church,

against fine clothes that the wearer could not afford, against drinking too much — though we must add that those laws were not always enforced.

If a man was guilty of telling a lie, his tongue was caught by a split stick, and he was stood up for people to laugh at. If a woman was proved to be a scolding, cross-



THE STOCKS

natured person, she was put on a ducking-stool at one end of a long plank, and ducked in the river. If a man was shown to be a drunkard, he was often obliged to wear a big *D* of red cloth hung around his neck or sewed to his clothes.

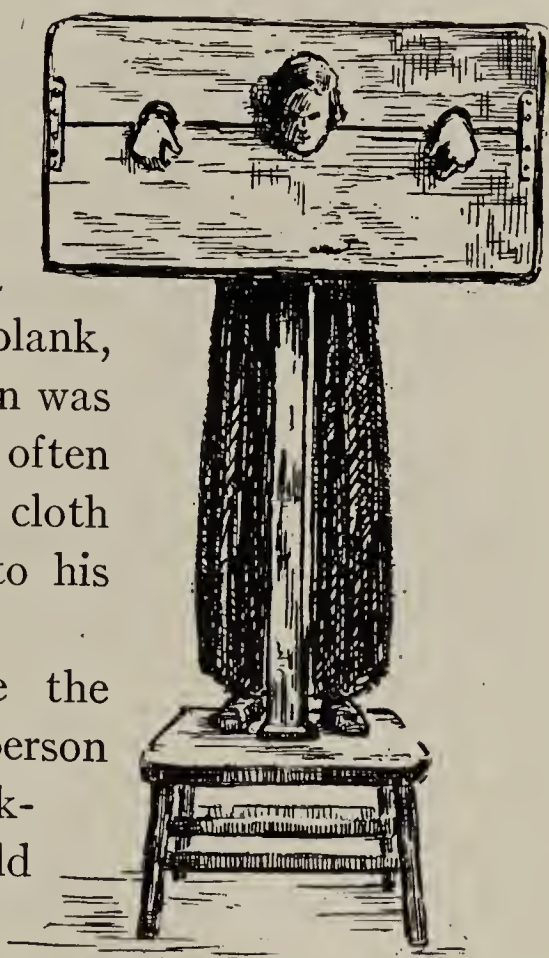
Set up in public places were the pillory and the stocks. If any person

Pillory and stocks was convicted of breaking the laws, he could

be ordered into the pillory or into the stocks, where he was quite helpless. The boys and men who

passed by could throw rotten eggs at him, and the girls and women could laugh at him, until the officers of the town were satisfied that he had been punished enough.

All hangings were public, and often great crowds came to see the unhappy scene. The streets were filled with people



THE PILLORY

from many miles around, speeches were made, sermons delivered, and hanging day was equal to the circus day of later times.

Our forefathers had no elegant railroad cars or fine roads, as we have at the present day, but contented themselves with the rude and slow stagecoach that went from one place to another. The roads were bad, especially in winter, and often everybody in the stage-

Travel



OUR FOREFATHERS TRAVELED BY STAGECOACH

coach had to get out and walk uphill, or help pull the wheels out of a rut or deep mud hole. Nobody traveled for pleasure in those days.

A lumbering stagecoach ran from New York to Philadelphia once a week at a rate of three or four miles an hour. When in 1776 the trip was made in

two days, it was thought so wonderful that the stagecoach was called the "flying machine."

Those who could, always rode horseback, traveling in small companies for protection. If the journey could be made by water, a sailing vessel or rowboat was used. The inns along the road were poor affairs, of rough accommodations and uncomfortable. Where we now go comfortably in a few hours in a railroad train, our ancestors spent many weary, disagreeable days.

The mail was carried on horseback. The charge for a

letter was often as high as twenty-five cents, and but few letters were written. The postman came irregularly, and when a person wrote to a distant friend there was no telling how long it would take to get a reply.

The farmers who lived along the roads were very hospitable to travelers, and no one was ever turned away or denied a night's lodging. Their cordial reception was the only thing that relieved the weariness of a journey.

One of the strangest and saddest things in

the early
Witchcraft history of
the country was the
belief in witches. If a
person had a fit, or if
the cattle died, or if
the crops failed, the
people said, "A witch
did it." If anybody
acted curiously, espe-
cially an old man or woman, or a deformed person, he was
at once accused of being a witch.



THE WITCHCRAFT DELUSION REACHED ITS HEIGHT
IN SALEM, MASS., IN 1692

This silly craze became worse in Salem, Massachusetts, in 1692 than at any other place or time. The least circumstance was sufficient for an accusation. A girl of fourteen years of age accused the laundress of stealing some of the linen. The mother of the laundress, who was an old woman, came and abused the girl, after which the child fell into fits. One of her brothers and two of her sisters likewise had fits.

The old woman was accused of being a witch and was hanged.

Many persons were persuaded to confess they were witches. Several hundred were tried in the courts, and the jails became full. The people were almost crazy on the subject. Persons of high rank and of good families were pointed out as witches, even one of the judges, the wife of the governor, and the wife of one of the ministers, being accused.

Nineteen of the accused were publicly hanged before the people came to their senses and saw how foolish they had been. Then the jails were opened and the poor prisoners set free. Since that time there has been no hanging of witches in our country, and everybody knows there never was nor ever will be such a thing as a witch. If this had been known in those days it would have saved the lives of nineteen persons, and avoided a great deal of folly and misery.

We should not neglect the story of the pirates who roamed the seas in the early days, destroying ships, capturing cargoes, and murdering sailors. The New England
Pirates people, as we have seen, were a seagoing people. Their ships went back and forth, carrying and bringing rich merchandise. Some of these ships tried to evade paying duties on their cargoes. They tried to smuggle in their goods by landing at some hidden creek or river, or on some deserted part of the shore. These smugglers and pirates became so bad that the honest ship dealers and owners complained loudly.

The governor of New York sent out Captain William Kidd to put down the sea robbers. The captain, however, pretended not to see any pirates; and, indeed, he became one himself. For a while he was the terror of the seas. When he came back to New York he was arrested and sent to London, where he was tried and hanged.

Along the North Carolina coasts were the favorite haunts of pirates. One of the most famous pirates was named Blackbeard. He had a ship that was swift, and men that were daring. He would attack small vessels, rifle their cargoes, kill everybody on board, and sink the ship.

A Virginia ship went after him, and a desperate hand-to-hand fight took place. All the pirates were killed or wounded. Blackbeard himself was slain, his head was cut off and hung from the bowsprit of the victorious ship. After a few years all the pirates were captured or run off from the Southern coasts, and from that time on no further trouble arose from that source to annoy the trade of the colonists.

5. SCHOOLS AND CHURCHES IN THE COLONIES

Schools were established early in every colony, but they were usually private schools attached to the church, in which the teaching of the Bible and of good morals was the main purpose.

In 1636 the General Court of Massachusetts voted £400 to establish a school to educate the English and Indians in "knowledge and godliness." Two years later the Rev. John Harvard died, leaving the school a legacy of books and money. For him the school was named Harvard College. The town in which it was situated was called Cambridge from the English town of the same name. So great was the interest in this college that at one time every family in Massachusetts gave something for its support.

The next college to be established was William and Mary College in Virginia in 1693. The colonists raised £2500, and a charter was received from the king and queen of England for whom the college was

named. It had a large influence upon the life of colonial Virginia. Williamsburg, where it was located, became the capital of the colony, and a splendid society grew up under the patronage of the governor and the college.

Other colleges were founded from time to time until at the close of the French and Indian War most of the great colleges and universities of New England and the Middle Colonies had been established.

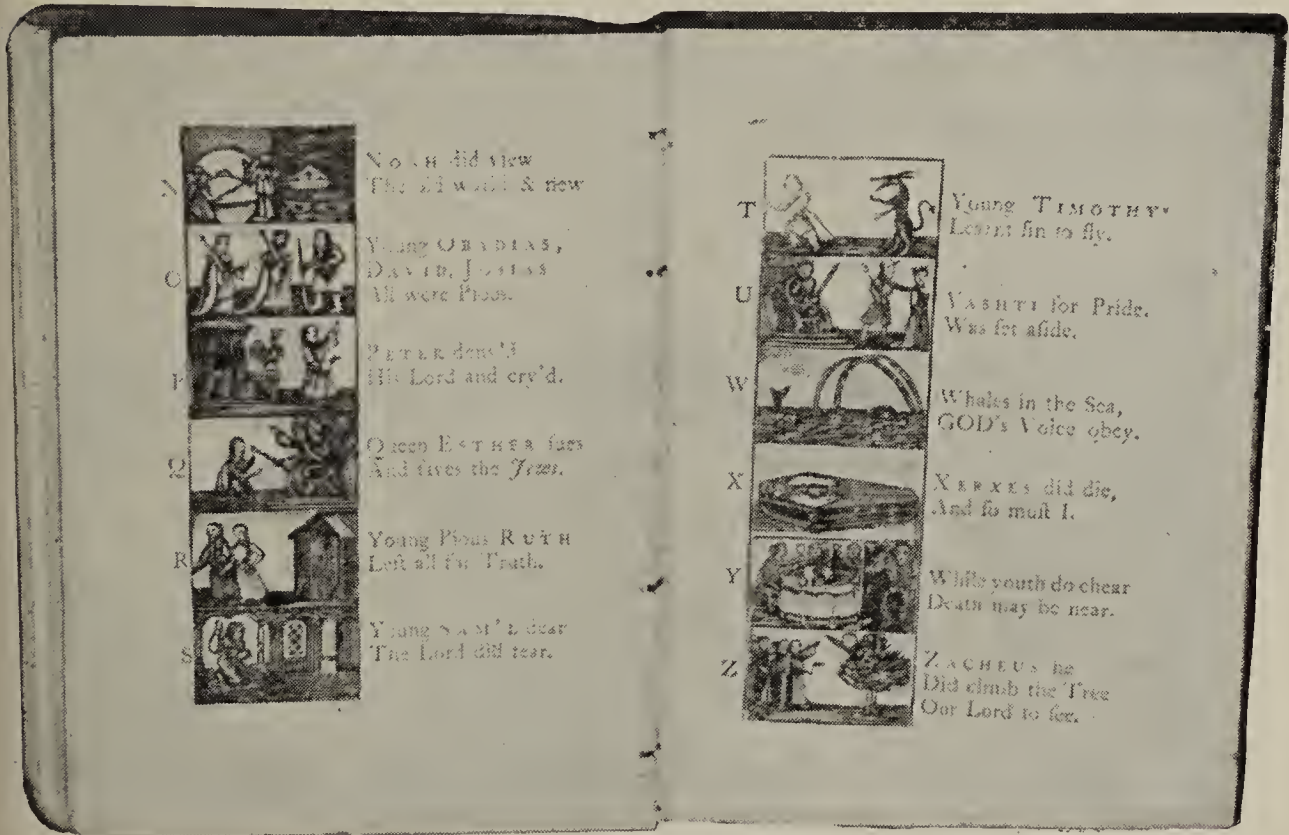
In 1647, Massachusetts made the beginning of a public school system by requiring each town of fifty families to support an elementary school, and each town of a hundred families to support a school of higher grade. The teachers were employed and paid by the people, and were required to teach all children who came to them. Just before the Revolution, the town was divided into districts, in each of which was a public school, to be taught by college graduates or by those to whom the ministers gave certificates. The selectmen were required to see that the schools were taught and that the children attended.

There were no public schools in the Southern and Middle Colonies, but private schools were widely established. Frequently these were taught by clergymen. The rich planters of Virginia, Maryland, and other Southern Colonies educated their children in England. The great mass of the people, however, throughout the country had but little opportunity to get an education, for the schools were poorly equipped, books were hard to get, and the school term was short.

Books and newspapers There were few books for the people to read, and public libraries were rare. Books had to be brought all the way from England and only the wealthy could afford to own them, or had sufficient education to read

them. It was a matter of note that one wealthy Virginia planter had a library of three thousand volumes.

A printing press was brought to Massachusetts in 1639, but it was a crude affair and was worked by hand. The first newspaper was issued in Boston in 1704, others followed slowly but they were all small and poorly printed,



A NEW ENGLAND PRIMER

and contained little news. The main contents were advertisements for runaway slaves, or bits of news from England, or the arrival of cargoes, and occasionally an essay on some moral or political subject. At the beginning of the Revolution there were only thirty-seven newspapers in all the colonies, none of them dailies, with a combined weekly circulation of about five thousand copies.

We have learned that many of the colonies in America were founded to secure religious freedom. Naturally then the early colonists were very strict on the subject of religion. The

minister was held in the highest regard by the people, for they were men of great piety, and generally of profound learning. The greatest of the New England ministers was Jonathan Edwards, whose work on the "Freedom of the Will" is one of the few books that have come down to us from colonial times.

The church, or meeting-house, was the finest building in the town. At first oiled paper was used in the windows. **The meeting-house** When glass came it was set in with nails instead of putty. Since there were few if any newspapers, all sorts of signs were put up on the meeting-house



PILGRIMS GOING TO CHURCH

doors and walls, — notices of town meetings, marriages, new laws, sales of cattle and farms.

On the outer walls were often nailed the bloody heads of wolves that had been killed, for which a reward was to be paid. On the church green were the pillory, stocks, and whipping posts, and a long row of hitching posts for the horses, as nearly everybody came on horseback.

There were various ways of calling the people to church,

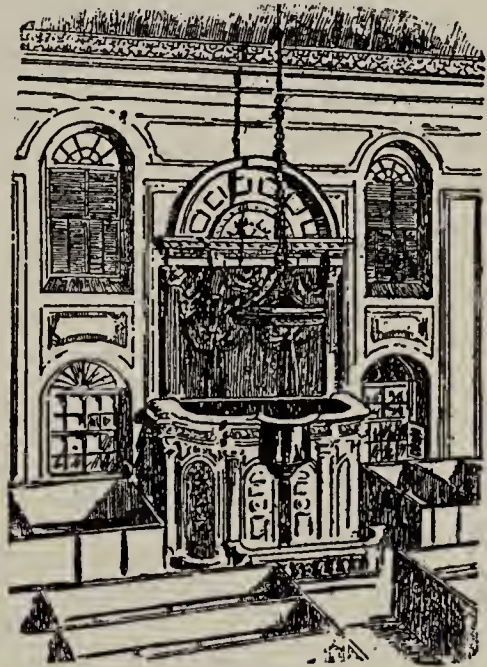
such as the beating of a drum, the blowing of a horn or a shell, the raising of a flag, the firing of a gun, and occasionally the ringing of a church bell. In very early times every man went to church with his gun, ready loaded, and set it down by the pew, to have it handy should the Indians attack.

Inside the church the seats were rough benches, or pews with high backs that one could hardly see over. The pulpit was very high, so that those in the pews could see the preacher, though they could not very well see one another. The men sat on one side of the church and the women on the other.

The boys were always required to sit on the pulpit or gallery stairs where they could be closely watched by the tithingman. The churches were not heated, and in winter time it was a hard matter to keep warm during the long service. The women often brought fur bags to put their feet in, and the men brought their dogs to put their feet

on. When the dogs made too much noise they had to be put out. Sometimes there were foot stoves which could be carried by hand and which contained live coals. These were very comfortable and serviceable for warming cold feet.

The sermons were usually long and dull. Sometimes the preacher, who was often the only warm one in the house, went on for two or three hours, and everybody became very tired. There was a tithingman, or captain of the watch, whose business it was to look out for sleepers.



PULPIT OF OLD SOUTH MEETING-HOUSE

The service

He had a long stick with a rabbit's foot on one end and a rabbit's tail on the other. If one of the boys or men became sleepy and nodded, the tithingman would rap him sharply over the head with one end of the stick. If an old lady became sleepy and nodded, the tithingman must tickle her nose with the rabbit's tail to keep her awake.

Services were held morning and afternoon, and at the noon intermission, if the weather was cold, everybody would hasten to the near-by tavern, or to a neighbor's house, and sit by a big fire until the time for the afternoon service.

Sunday was strictly observed. Any unseemly conduct was punished by a fine or by a whipping. Everybody was forbidden to fish, shoot, sail or row a boat, dance, jump, or do any work on the farm. The use of tobacco near any meeting-house was also forbidden.

Sunday began at sundown on Saturday and lasted until sundown on Sunday. Everybody was required to go to church. In Virginia in the early times, half an hour before service, the captain of the watch stationed sentinels, and then searched all the houses to see that everybody was on the way to church.

6. SERVANTS AND SLAVES IN THE COLONIES

Among those who early came to America, in response to a demand for servants and laborers so much needed in the New World, was a class of white servants known as indentured servants. They were generally poor white boys or girls, or even men and women, who could not pay for their passage and were bound to their masters for a number of years, by written agreements, called "indentures."

When they arrived in America their masters paid their passage money. These servants generally served three to

five years, during which time their masters had to furnish them with proper food and clothing. After their term of service was over, their masters gave them small tracts of land.



KIDNAPPING A MAN FOR THE AMERICAN COLONIES

So great was the need for servants, that even criminals were sent over and sold into service to farmers and small manufacturers to pay for their passage, but this order of the English authorities did not meet with

Criminals

much favor in the colonies, for criminals were as dangerous in New England as they were in London.

Worse than that, there were gangs of kidnappers in England who would seize laboring men, vagabonds, and even children out of the alleys and along the wharves of English towns, and hurry them on board ships to be sold into service when they reached America.

Generally no questions were asked as to where the servants came from or how they were procured. In the majority of cases those who were kidnapped and brought over were content with their lot, for they were accustomed to hardship and were better off in America than in the streets and by-ways of London and the English coast towns.

There is no means of knowing exactly how many criminals and vagabonds were brought to America, but it is estimated that there were more than ten thousand, most of these being sold into Maryland and the Middle Colonies.

Many of these indentured servants, and about all the criminals, were thriftless and worthless. When their term of service expired, and they were free to do as they pleased, they generally pleased to do as little as possible. They thus laid the foundations of a lower and criminal order from which all the colonies suffered.

We have already seen that the first negro slaves were brought to Virginia in 1619. This was the beginning of
Negro slaves negro slavery in America, but it soon spread over all the colonies, until every one of them had some negro slaves.

New England had the fewest slaves of any of the colonies, and these were mostly house servants. The Dutch in New York had slaves, but negro slaves were far more numerous in Virginia and the other Southern Colonies. The negroes

coming from Africa, where the climate is warm, were not accustomed to cold weather, and could not work outdoors in the hard winter of the Northern Colonies. On the other hand, the climate of the South was like that of their own native country; the work was farming, for which the negro is adapted, and the kind of work required physical strength more than skill.

Thus the Northern Colonies did not find negro-slave labor profitable and the Southern Colonies found it very much so. At one time there were twice as many slaves in South Carolina as there were white people.

The slave trade became a profitable industry. Ships were built in England for the very purpose of going to the coast of Africa, buying the negro prisoners that had been captured in the wars, and bringing them to America for sale. Even the ship captains of New England engaged in this business, and after selling their cargoes in London, it was their practice to cruise along the African coast and get a shipload of unhappy negroes to bring to America.

It is said that in ten years from 1680 to 1690, nearly fifty thousand negroes were thus brought to America. All of them were bought at the ships' sides by slave dealers, who afterwards sold them to the farmers for laborers.

In New York in 1712 there was an uprising of the slaves, and again in 1741. To put down these insurrections the negroes were treated harshly. At one time twenty-four and at another time thirty-three were put to death. Nineteen of them were burned alive. In 1740 there was an insurrection of the negroes in South Carolina, which was put down with much bloodshed and cruelty.

In this way there grew up in the Southern Colonies a great slave system. The system continued long after slavery was abolished in New England, and was the foundation of a social order in the South, and the occasion of a long and bitter quarrel and war, of which we shall learn later on in our history.

TOPICS

Colonial Government. Condition of the colonies. Cities. The settlements on the seaboard; in the interior. The three forms of government; difference of each. Council and assembly. Character of the governors; relation to the people. Conditions in New England settlements. The New England towns. The New England church. Conditions in Virginia. County form of government. Court days.

The Homes of the Colonists. Homes of the pioneers. Log cabins. Window lights; floors; lighting. Inside cheer; occupations. The food; eating utensils; the conversation; the family beverage; sleeping arrangements. Improvements in the houses. Virginia mansions. Inns and taverns. Hospitality. Life in the cities. The night watchman. Fire protection.

Occupations, Dress, Sports. Main occupations. New England industries. Fishing vessels. Industries in New York. Dutch in Pennsylvania. Industries in the South. The farmers. Clothing of the pioneers; of the wealthy; women's dress. Sports; hunting wolves and bears; catching foxes; shooting; dancing. Pleasure in the Southern Colonies; fox-hunting; horse-racing; gayety. Holidays among the Dutch.

Laws, Travel, Customs. Severe laws. Punishment for lying; for being a scold; for being a drunkard. Pillory and stocks. Hanging days. Travel by stagecoach; condition of roads. Stagecoach in early days; other means of travel; carrying the mail; postal charges. Hospitality to travelers. Witchcraft; craze in Salem; instances of witchcraft; results; passing of the craze. Smuggling and piracy. Captain Kidd; his piracy and trial. Blackbeard and his fate.

Schools and Churches in the Colonies. Beginning of Harvard College. Cambridge. Interest of the people. William and Mary College. Beginning of public schools in Massachusetts; the teacher. Schools in

Southern and Middle Colonies. Books and libraries. The first newspapers; contents. Ministers in the colonies. Jonathan Edwards. The meeting-house; the outer walls; the green; calling the people; carrying the guns. Inside the church; the seating; the long service; keeping warm; the sermons; keeping the people awake; noon intermission. Observing Sunday.

Servants and Slaves in the Colonies. Indentured servants; indentures; service and reward. Criminals; kidnappers; number of criminals and vagabonds in America; their character and influence. Negro slaves; slaves in New England; slaves in the South. Slave trade. English captains; number of slaves sold. Insurrections. Slave system of the South.

SUBJECTS FOR STUDY

Compare the town meeting of New England with the court days in Virginia. What was the influence of the pioneer home on the character of the first settlers in America? What influence has locality upon the industry of a people? What influence have the Dutch had upon the life of America? Discuss public punishments of the olden times and their influence upon the observers. Discuss the folly of the belief in witchcraft. What influence have the great colleges and the public-school system had upon the character of the people of New England? What effect did slavery have upon the life of the people in the South?

COMPOSITION

Write an account of the trial of a witch in Salem.

Write an account of attending church in colonial times.

Write the supposed story of a negro who was bought in Africa by the captain of a slave ship and sold to a planter in America.

Collateral Reading. "Snow-Bound," by Whittier.

CHAPTER VII

THE REVOLUTIONARY WAR

1. GEORGE III AND THE AMERICAN COLONIES

When England planted colonies in America, or agreed to people coming here for that purpose, the king had in mind only the riches to be gained for England. He cared little for the colony; it was planted for the benefit of the mother country. Therefore, certain laws were passed by Parliament from time to time which were designed to help the mother country at the expense of the colonies.

The first of these laws regulated trade, and were called Navigation Acts. By these laws the colonies were required to trade with England only. The merchants of America could not sell their tobacco, rice, indigo, furs, lumber, or anything they raised, made, or bought, to any other than English merchants.

Then again the people of the colonies were not allowed to buy from any merchants except the English merchants. All the French silk and the China teas had to be brought to America in English vessels, so that the English merchants could make their profit on them.

The second unjust law was the one regulating manufactures. It was against the law for the colonists to make anything out of wool and sell it in any other colony. The English government wanted the colonists to raise sheep and send the wool to England to be made into cloth. It was also against the law to put up iron-

works in America. The English wanted the colonists to dig the iron out of the ground and prepare it in foundries for manufacture, then send it to England to be made into plows, axes, knives, and other implements.

It was also against the law for the colonists to make hats, although there was plenty of fur on this side of the ocean of which to make them. The English government said that the colonists should get the fur and the English hatters would make the hats.

One of the most oppressive of these laws was that of taxing certain articles, such as sugar and molasses, of which the colonists used a great deal, and on which they had to pay a duty before they could bring them into the country. Every man who used a gallon of molasses had to pay a tax equal to ten cents.

Taxes

The colonists began to evade the laws whenever they could. Their own ships would trade with the West Indies and get foreign produce and smuggle it into the country. So long as the British officials did not find it out, the people did not care. In fact, they rather encouraged it, and if anybody was caught, the judges were very easy in their punishment. So the warehouses and stores of the colonists were often full of smuggled goods for sale.

Smuggling

When George III became king in 1760, he determined to make the colonies pay more revenue to the home government by having the Navigation Acts strictly observed. He also decided to maintain a standing army in America, and to lay a tax upon the colonies. The first thing to do was to prevent smuggling.

The custom-house officials tried to put a stop to smuggling, by searching everybody's house. They secured search warrants known as "writs of assistance," which allowed them

to enter any man's house and seize anything they thought had been smuggled into the country. With these writs the
Writs of Assistance officers went about Boston, breaking into the warehouses, tearing down doors, overturning boxes, and searching for goods, which they seized at pleasure, whether the goods had been smuggled or not. The custom-house officers were creatures of the king.

This made the people angry, you may be sure. They were almost ready to mob the officers, but they finally decided to make a case in law. They employed a young Boston lawyer, named James Otis, to plead their cause in the courts. He spoke for five hours in the defense of the principle that Great Britain had no right to tax us without our consent, or take our money in any way without permission.

This speech produced so great an effect that the judges were afraid to decide against him. They gave no decision
Speech of James Otis at all, which was the same as a victory for Otis; but there were no more writs of assistance used in Boston or elsewhere. The battle cry of the Revolution became, "Taxation without representation is tyranny."

We must not get the idea that the American colonists were opposed to the mother country in feeling. They loved the Old England from which their fathers came. It was a proud boast to have been in London, and to have seen any of the great Englishmen of the day. The colonists had fought for the mother country, and were willing to die for her interests, but they wanted to be treated as subjects and not as dependents.

George III and his friends It was not the English people so much as the English king, George III, and his friends, who had caused all this trouble. He had come to the throne in 1760, when he was twenty-two years of age, and he was nearly forty when the Revolution began. He believed

in the rights of kings to have their own way and that the will of the people counted for nothing against the will of the king. When he ascended the throne, his mother said to him, "George, be a king," but instead of being the right kind of king he became a very foolish one.

Instead of choosing the wisest and best men in the kingdom to be his advisers, he turned to the weaker men who flattered him and who were ready to do his bidding. It was always one of "the king's friends" who proposed in Parliament the obnoxious measures against America. Finally, the king succeeded in getting a prime minister, Lord North, who was quite willing for the king to have his way in all things, so much so that the king really became his own prime minister.

To see how poorly the great mass of the people of England was represented in Parliament, we should know that when George III became king there was a most unequal **Rotten** distribution of seats in the House of Commons. **boroughs** No changes had been made in two hundred years, of the allotment of seats according to the number of population. Some large cities that had grown up had no representatives at all, while some old and small places had several representatives. One town named Old Sarum went on having members of Parliament long after it ceased to have any inhabitants at all. Such towns were called "rotten boroughs."

The result was that many members represented only a handful of voters and that many seats were bought and sold, and some were given away as favors. This made a Parliament that did not represent the great body of the people at all, and made it easy for the king to secure such laws as he and "his friends" chose. He began to rule his colonies in America by royal orders, which if not obeyed were to be

enforced by military power. Colonial assemblies were dissolved, unusual places of meeting were appointed, lands were granted or taken away, and in many other ways the colonists were treated without consideration.

The colonists were not without friends in England and sympathizers in Parliament. There were many who stoutly maintained that the colonists were right in opposing the king and that a law oppressing an English subject was a bad law, though it was directed against a colony. There were some voices in Parliament who spoke out in their defense. One great Englishman, William Pitt, who was the Earl of Chatham, declared in a speech in the House of Lords, "This kingdom has no right to lay a tax upon the colonies. I rejoice that America has resisted." For this speech he was loudly cheered as he walked through the streets of London, for the cause of the colonists in America was felt to be the cause of English subjects and people everywhere.

English
friends of
the colonies

2. FIRST ACTS OF RESISTANCE

Four years after James Otis made his great speech in Boston against the writs of assistance, Parliament decided to put a new kind of tax on the American people. A law was passed in 1765 called the Stamp Act.

This Act required everybody to use stamped paper for all licenses, all bonds and deeds to property, all newspapers, books, and printed matter. This paper was printed in England, stamped, and brought to America to be sold to the colonists. The stamped paper was sold at from one cent to fifty dollars, according to the purpose for which it was to be used.

The Stamp
Act

The Stamp Act required that persons who married should

buy a stamped marriage license or they were not legally married, but the ministers paid no attention to the laws and people were married as before. This Act required all deeds to property to be written on stamped paper, but the lawyers agreed that deeds were good without the stamps. In fact, the people again refused to be taxed without their consent. They flatly refused to buy any of the stamped paper.

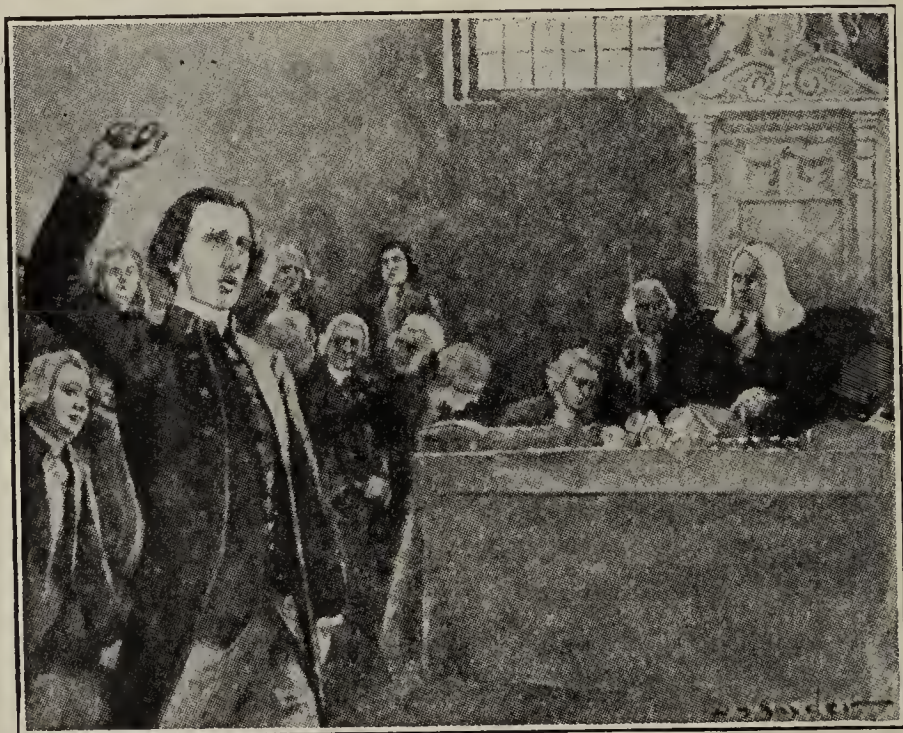
While the Stamp Act was being debated in Parliament, the cause of the colonists had some eloquent defenders. Colonel Barré, who had fought side by side with Wolfe at Quebec, replied to the statement that the colonies were children, "planted by our care, nourished by our indulgence, and protected by our arms," by exclaiming with indignant eloquence:

"They, planted by your care! No, your oppression planted them in America. They, nourished by your indulgence! They grew up by your neglect of them. They, protected by your arms! Those sons of liberty have nobly taken up arms in your defense."

For these expressions he was loudly applauded by the advocates of the rights of the colonists, and the expression Sons of Liberty became a rallying cry of the patriots in America and their friends in England.

Among those in America who opposed the Stamp Act was the great orator, Patrick Henry, of Virginia. When the news of the Act arrived, he was a member of the House of Burgesses. He tore a leaf out of the back of an old law book and wrote on it a resolution declaring that England had no right to lay taxes on the colonies. He then had the resolution read to the members, and began to speak. It was one of the greatest speeches ever delivered in America.

At the close of the speech he said in tones of thunder, "Caesar had his Brutus; Charles I his Cromwell; and George III ——" When he reached this point, as it was not lawful to say anything against the king, the members rose to their feet in terror of what might happen and cried out, "Treason! Treason!" Henry only paused a moment and turned on them, saying, "George III may profit by their example. If



PATRICK HENRY MAKES HIS FAMOUS SPEECH IN THE HOUSE OF BURGESSES, VIRGINIA, DENOUNCING THE STAMP ACT

this be treason, make the most of it." The resolution was passed by a majority of one vote.

The British Parliament, seeing the opposition of the colonies, repealed the Stamp Act in 1766.

Benjamin Franklin was in England as the agent of the Pennsylvania colony. While he was there the Stamp Act was passed by the British Parliament. Franklin was strongly opposed to the measure. He told the English people that the colonies would never submit to

it, that they loved liberty very dearly, and would fight rather than surrender their rights as colonists. It was largely through his influence that the Stamp Act was repealed.

During the Revolution he was sent to France to gain the friendship of that nation for the colonies. He was very

Franklin in much liked by
Paris the French

people. He became a friend of the king and a favorite at the court. He was received in his plain brown suit, while everybody else wore the fashionable court dress of the time.

Parliament, however, was determined to show its

Tax on tea, power, and in
etc. 1767

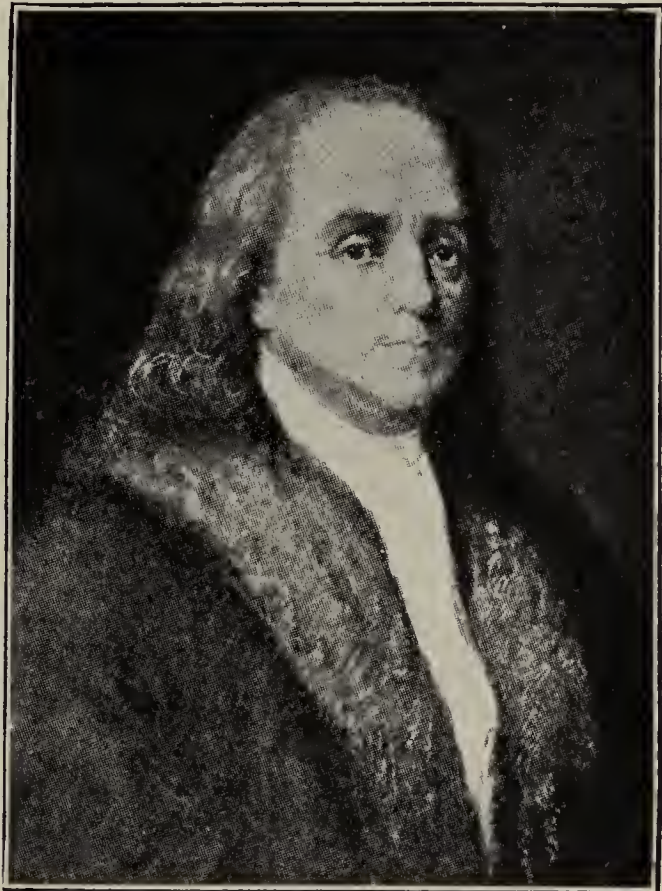
passed a law taxing tea, glass, paper, and a few other articles.

The colonists were opposed to this tax also. They had

not used stamped paper

and now they resolved not to use tea. The way to avoid the tax is not to use the thing taxed. So the people drank sassafras tea instead of tea from China. This made the English merchants angry, for they had no sale for their cargoes. From Boston to Savannah the tea ships lay in the harbor, but nobody wanted tea, nor anything else that was taxed by England.

The Legislature or Assembly of Massachusetts sent out a circular letter to all the other colonies, asserting the rights of



BENJAMIN FRANKLIN

the American people and calling for united action against the new taxes. When George III heard of this he was furious, and ordered Massachusetts to recall the circular letter. This Massachusetts refused to do, and the king had the Assembly dissolved. Other assemblies in other colonies were treated



FRANKLIN ATTRACTS DISTINGUISHED ATTENTION AT THE COURT OF FRANCE

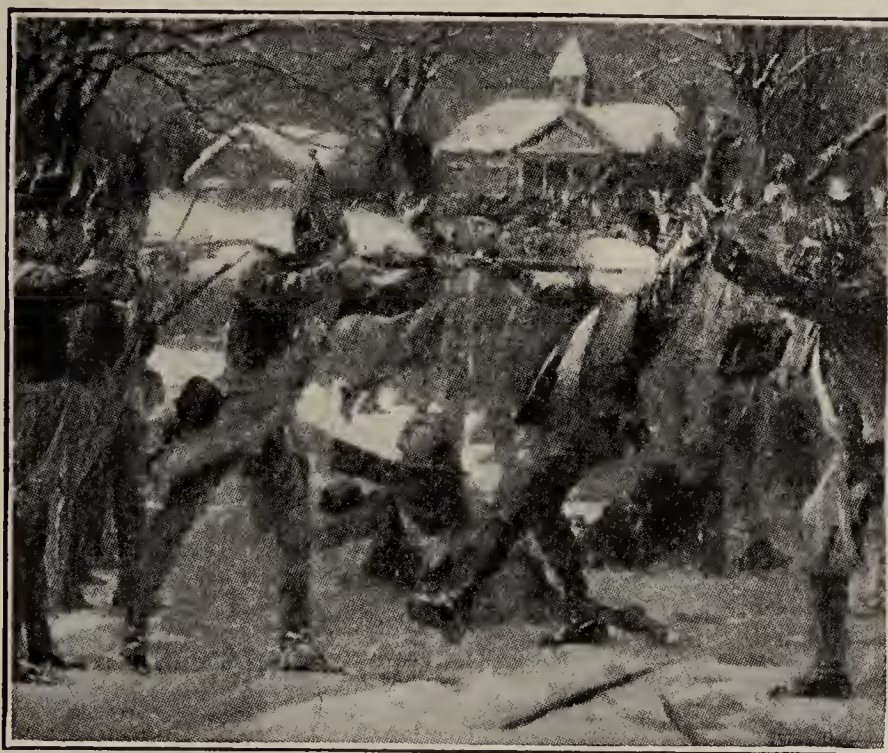
in the same way, until public business was seriously interrupted.

George III foolishly tried to enforce the law by arms. Accordingly he sent a body of troops to Boston. The people of that town held a meeting, and a day was appointed for fasting and prayer. The troops were not allowed the use of the people's houses, but had to use the Capitol building to live in.

After the troops had been there for a year and a half, a body of seven of them had a quarrel one night with some

citizens of the town, and, firing into the crowd, killed five people and wounded others. This was known as the Boston Massacre, and greatly angered the citizens. The next day Samuel Adams, one of the leading men of the colony, called upon the governor and sternly told him to take his soldiers out of town or they would be run out by the citizens. By sundown the troops had all left, and were on a little island in the harbor.

Boston
Massacre,
March 5, 1770



THE BRITISH TROOPS IN BOSTON FIRE INTO A CROWD OF CITIZENS

Samuel Adams is often called the "Father of the Revolution." He was a very stern patriot who had little patience with the British. When he told the royal governor to remove the troops from Boston he shook his finger at him and said, "The voice of ten thousand freemen must be respected and their demands obeyed." Later Adams said with great satisfaction, "I saw his knees tremble and his face grow pale. I confess I enjoyed the sight."

There were tea ships in the harbor of Boston waiting to

unload their tea. There were no people willing to buy, and there were many who were determined that the tea should not even be landed or stored in the warehouses of the town. The people were of one mind. A **Boston Tea Party,** Dec. 16, 1773 great meeting of the people of Boston was held, and speeches were delivered until it grew dark. Some one asked, "I wonder how tea would mix with sea water?" Suddenly a whoop as of Indians was heard in the streets. Everybody rushed outside and found that some citizens had disguised themselves as Indians and were on their way to the tea ships. They were going to find out how tea and sea water would mix.

The crowd followed, and when the wharf was reached, the disguised citizens climbed aboard the ships, broke open three hundred and forty-two chests of tea, and poured it all into the ocean. This is called the "Boston Tea Party."

Other towns had tea parties. In Charleston the tea was stored in damp cellars, left to spoil, or else was sold for the public good after the war began. At Annapolis a rich ship owner was compelled to set fire to his own ship. The spirit of one colony was the spirit of all. America had but one voice now, and that was resistance to all forms of injustice and tyranny.

When the news of the way the colonists had treated the tea, especially in Boston, reached England, **Measures for retaliation** Parliament decided to teach the colonies a lesson. To do this they passed several measures.

The first was to close the port of Boston until the tea that had been destroyed was paid for. No ships could come in or go out. All trade was stopped, and the people had to suffer or submit to the laws. The other colonies came to the relief of Boston at once. Money, food, and clothing

poured in from every side, and the people did not suffer. The universal cry was, "The cause of Boston is the cause of all." South Carolina sent her message to Boston in these ringing words, "The whole country must be animated with one great soul, and all Americans must stand by one another even unto death."

The next measure was to change the charter of Massachusetts so that all the judges, sheriffs, and other officers were to be appointed by the Crown instead of being elected by the people. A new military governor, General Thomas Gage, was also appointed, but the people paid no attention to him, would not pay money into his treasury, and in every way ignored him.

The next measure was to provide that any officers or soldiers who committed murder in the colonies while in discharge of their duty, should be sent to England for trial. It was thought that this would make them more active, by not leaving them to be tried by unfriendly juries in America.

These measures provoked the colonies more and more. Sympathy for Massachusetts was expressed everywhere. A Congress of delegates from the colonies met in Philadelphia in 1774. It was the first Continental Congress. All that this Congress could do, however, was to pass resolutions of resistance to the laws, and address a petition to the king, setting forth the grievances of the American people.

3. THE FIRST BATTLE OF THE REVOLUTION

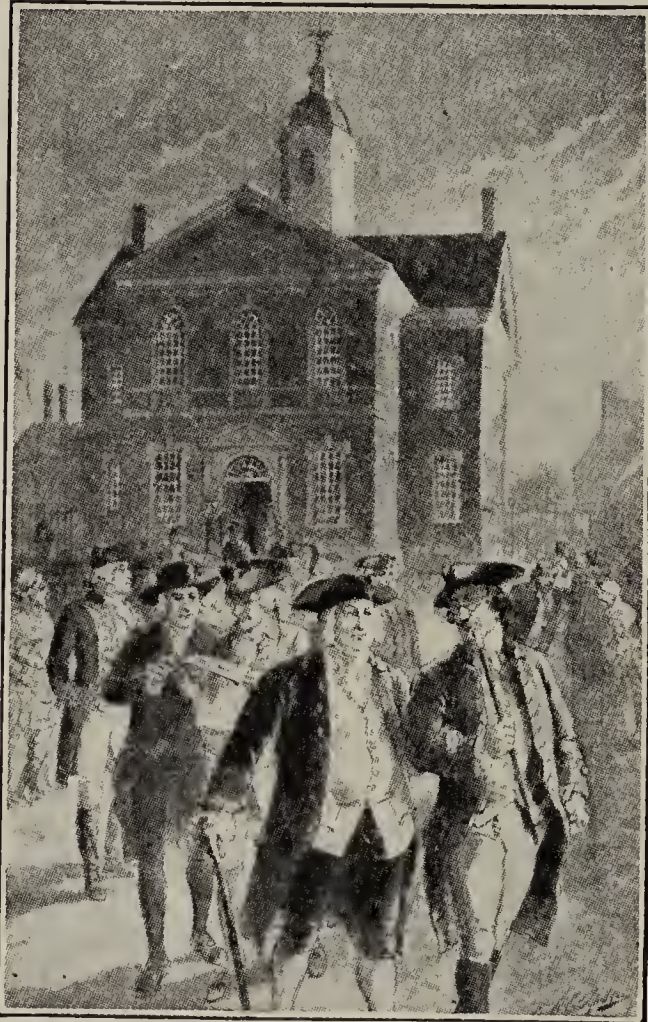
The people of Massachusetts called a provincial Congress to meet in Concord. This Congress set to work to gather guns, powder, shot, and cannon in readiness for the war which they saw was sure to come. General Gage, in Boston,

resolved to capture these stores by secretly sending a body of troops to take them before the people knew what he was about. On the way to Concord, he also intended to capture John Hancock and Samuel Adams, two noted patriots, who

were at a friend's house in Lexington.

The British soldiers were ready to march from Boston to Concord, but the ride

Americans suspected their plans and were watching them. Across the river a patriot, Paul Revere, stood mounted and ready. When he saw the lantern hung up in the church tower, a signal that the troops had started, he rode off into the night on the way to Lexington and Concord, shouting as he thundered along the roads and through the towns, "The British are coming!"



THE FIRST CONTINENTAL CONGRESS MET AT PHILADELPHIA IN 1774

When he came to the house in Lexington where Hancock and Adams were asleep, the man on guard called out to him, "Don't make so much noise!" "Noise!" cried Revere, "there will be noise enough before long: the regulars are coming." Hancock knew Revere's voice and was soon up. When he heard what was happening, he and Adams quickly proceeded to Philadelphia.

All along the road to Lexington and Concord the people rose and armed themselves. When the British reached Lexington they found seventy men drawn up and ready to meet them. Captain John Parker was commanding them. He had said to his men, "Don't fire unless you are fired upon; but if they mean to have a war, let it begin here." The British commander, Major



MAJOR PITCAIRN, AT LEXINGTON, CRIED OUT, "DISPERSE, YE VILLAINS!"

Pitcairn, on seeing the patriots in line, drew his pistol, and pointing it at them, cried out, "Disperse, ye villains!"

The soldiers, however, did not move. One of the patriots tried to fire his gun, but it flashed and did not go off. The British then fired, and several of the Americans were killed. After a feeble resistance, Parker retired.

The British marched on to Concord. When they arrived they found that much of the stores had been removed, but they began to burn and destroy what was left.

Everywhere the farmers were gathering, armed with their

old muskets and rifles. Crowds had reached Concord, and from a neighboring hill they began to shoot at the British soldiers. The British, having done all the damage they could, started back to Lexington. It was now broad day and the highway was lined with the indignant patriots.

Behind every tree and bush, from every stone wall and every clump of trees, came a ceaseless rain of bullets. It



was one long ambush, and the British soon broke into a run. The faster they ran the faster came the shots from the hidden farmers. Nearly three hundred British were killed or captured. When

those who were left reached Lexington they fell down, completely exhausted by their terrible experiences. Thus it was that the battle of Lexington, the first battle of the Revolution, was fought, **April 19, 1775.**

As soon as it was known that the English Parliament considered the American colonies in a state of rebellion, the people of Mecklenburg County, North Carolina, held a convention in Charlotte, **May, 1775.** Resolutions were passed by those patriotic citizens declaring that they were henceforth subject only to the Provincial Congress of North Carolina, and to the

**Battle of
Lexington**

**BOSTON AND
VICINITY**

**The Mecklen-
burg declara-
tion**

Continental Congress of all the States. These resolutions were passed more than a year before the great Declaration of Independence.

News of the battle of Lexington spread like wildfire. Soldiers poured in from all over New England. Israel Putnam, an old hero of many Indian wars, was plowing in the fields at his home in Connecticut when The soldiers gather he heard the news. He left the plow in the furrow, saddled his horse and rode a hundred miles, almost without stopping, to join the army near Boston. In a few days there was an army of sixteen thousand men around Boston. Inside the town was the British army, ten thousand strong.

At Philadelphia a second Continental Congress had met and chosen John Hancock president. This Congress organized all the troops into a Continental Army, and called for volunteers from Virginia, New York, and other colonies. They also chose George Washington to be Commander-in-Chief of the army. He departed immediately for Boston to take command. - Before he arrived, however, another great battle was fought, which is known as the battle of Bunker Hill.

Two months after the Lexington fight the American soldiers around Boston began to fortify Breed's Hill, which overlooks Boston and is very near to Bunker Battle of Bunker Hill Hill. One night in June a thousand men dug trenches there and threw up breastworks to protect themselves. The next day, **June 17, 1775**, the British moved up to take this fort. The Americans had but little powder and shot, and their officers told them not to fire until they could see the whites of the enemy's eyes.

On came the British up the hill. When they were within a hundred feet of the fort the order to fire was given. The Americans rose up and poured a deadly fire right into the

faces of the British and then dropped behind their breastworks. Again this was done, until the British retreated twice under the deadly fire.

On the third attack the ammunition of the Americans gave out, and as the British moved up to the fort the brave patriots met them with clubbed muskets and heavy stones.

But the Americans were forced to retire, leaving the British in possession. They had made a noble fight, and the battle of Bunker Hill will long remain in the memory of the nation as one of the heroic conflicts of the great war.

When Washington, who was on his way to Boston, heard of the battle of Bunker Hill from a courier who met him, he anxiously asked, "How did the militia stand the fire of the British regulars?" "Well," was the reply. "Then," said he, "the liberty of the country is secure."

The very day the second Continental Congress met, and before the battle of Bunker Hill had been fought, Ethan Allen and a few men surprised the British fort at Ticonderoga on Lake Champlain. The Commander of the fort was a friend of Ethan Allen, and when he opened the door he was surprised to see Allen there with three hundred soldiers. "By what authority do you ask me to surrender?" said he. "In the name of the great Jehovah and the Continental Congress," answered Allen. He then seized the fort with all its cannon, arms, and supplies.

**Capture of
Fort
Ticonderoga**

4. THE PROGRESS OF THE WAR

Two weeks after the battle of Bunker Hill, George Washington arrived near Boston and took command of the troops. The ceremony took place under an elm tree in Cambridge, a spot that will ever be dear to American hearts. He

established his headquarters in a house that afterwards became the home of the poet Longfellow. Over the headquarters proudly floated our first national flag. This flag had thirteen red and white stripes, but in place of the stars was displayed the “Union Jack,” the British colors.

Washington
takes com-
mand

Washington commanded only fifteen thousand men — not much of an army. These men had almost no guns, were poorly



UNDER THE HISTORIC ELM TREE AT CAMBRIDGE, MASS., WASHINGTON ASSUMES
COMMAND OF THE ARMY

trained, and knew little about the duties of a soldier. It took nearly nine months for Washington to drill them, and see that they were organized into companies and made ready for actual war. The British stayed quietly and comfortably in Boston while all this was going on.

Washington was now ready to attack the British. Fifty

cannon had been dragged on ox sleds all the way from the captured fort of Ticonderoga, and enough powder was at hand to load them. Accordingly, in **March, 1776**, Washington seized Dorchester Heights, which overlooks Boston on the south.

When the cannon were in position he sent word to General Howe, who had succeeded General Gage in command of the **The British** British troops, to move out of Boston or be **leave Boston** prepared for an attack. When General Howe saw the cannon he thought it best to move out. He and his army, with about a thousand of the citizens who sympathized with the king, and on that account were called "Tories," went on board their ships and sailed away to Halifax.

Washington then marched into Boston. He had captured the town without losing a man. Everywhere there was rejoicing, and Congress voted him a gold medal in honor of the event.

While this was going on, the British in Canada threatened to move down on the towns in New York. To give **Expeditions** them something else to think about, General **into Canada** Montgomery of New York marched against Montreal and captured it. Benedict Arnold, from Connecticut, started overland with a thousand men to join Montgomery in an attack on Quebec.

Arnold and his men marched through the forests of Maine for six dreadful weeks. The food gave out and the soldiers suffered severely. Many of them deserted and went back to their homes. When the rest reached Quebec they were so ragged, footsore, and weak that they were not fit for service.

Montgomery had a few hundred men. He and Arnold stormed the great fortress which Wolfe had captured from the French. Montgomery was killed, Arnold was badly

wounded, and the American army was compelled to retire from Canada.

Several months before Howe evacuated Boston a force under the British General Clinton was sent to subdue the Southern Colonies. This force reached Charleston. When the brave people of that colony heard of the approach of the enemy, they went to work building forts. On Sullivan's Island a fort was made of palmetto logs and earth, cannon were mounted, and Colonel Moultrie was placed in command.

**The British
attack
Charleston**

When the British arrived they attacked the fort, but the cannon balls sank into the earth or into the soft palmetto wood and did little damage. Colonel Moultrie replied so vigorously all day that when night came the British decided they could not land. They raised their anchors and sailed northward to attack New York. The fort has ever since been called Fort Moultrie.

While the battle was in progress, the flagstaff was broken by a cannon ball. Sergeant William Jasper, seeing the flag fall over the wall, leaped down outside, in the face of a furious fire from the enemy, seized the flag, fixed it in its place, and returned unharmed. For this brave act he was presented with a handsome sword.

The war had been going on now for a year. It was plain to everybody that a long and stubborn conflict was at hand. The Americans up to this time had been fighting for their rights as colonists and subjects of the British government. Even Washington, when he took charge of the army, had no idea of fighting for anything else.

It became evident, however, that the king did not intend that the Americans should have their rights as subjects. To make matters worse, the king had hired about thirty thousand

Hessian or German soldiers to put down what he called "the rebellion in America." When this became known the people



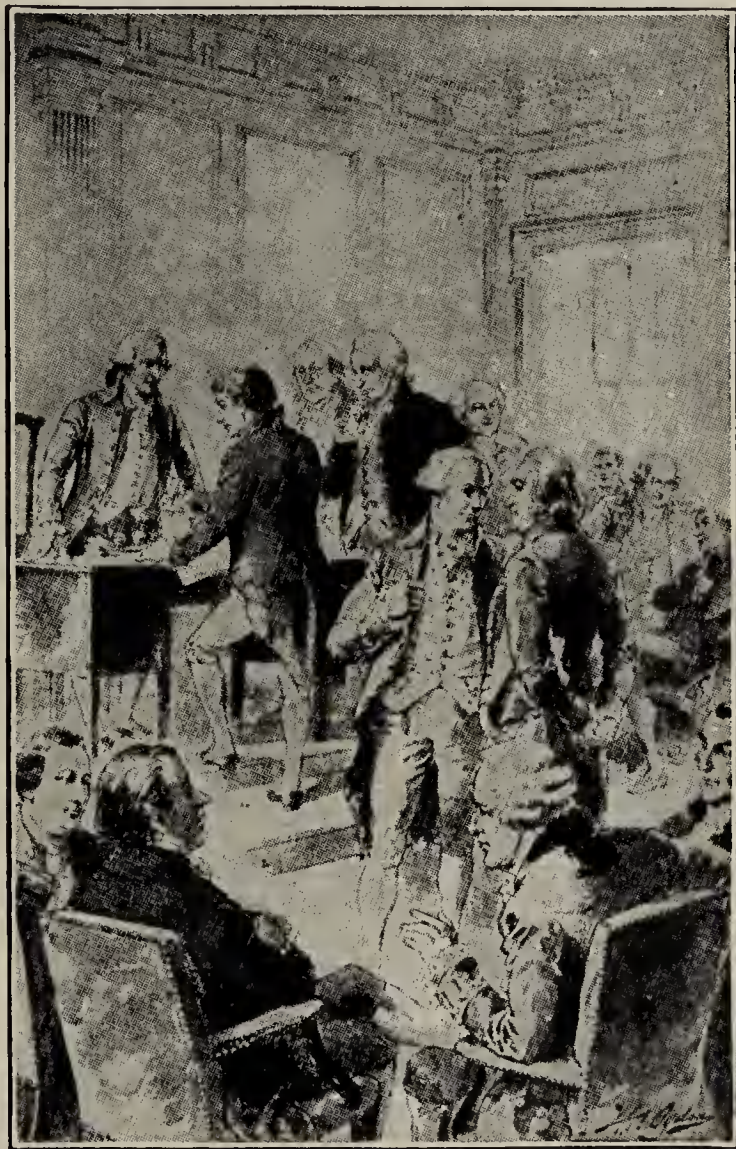
SERGEANT JASPER LEAPS UPON THE PARAPET AT FORT MOULTRIE AND REPLACES THE FALLEN FLAG

of America with one voice declared for independence from Great Britain and its unwise king.

In **June, 1776**, Richard Henry Lee of Virginia proposed in Congress, then in session in Philadelphia, that "these united colonies are and of right ought to be free and independent states." John Adams of Massachusetts joined him in urging the independence of the colonies.

A committee of five was appointed to draw up a Declaration of Independence. Thomas Jefferson of Virginia wrote it. John Adams, of Massachusetts, Benjamin Franklin, of Pennsylvania, Roger Sherman, of Connecticut, and Robert R. Livingston, of New York made some suggestions. Thus we see that all parts of our country were concerned in the preparation of that most famous of American state papers.

July 4th, 1776, the Declaration of Independence was formally adopted. The bell-ringer in the belfry was in readiness to give out the news to the people. A boy was stationed in the hall below to announce the vote. The boy cried out, "Ring! Ring!" The ringer pulled the bell rope vigorously, and the notes of liberty rang out over Philadelphia and over the waiting crowds below. The town went wild with joy. People shouted and embraced each other, bonfires were built, and processions marched through the streets.



THE MEMBERS OF THE CONTINENTAL CONGRESS
SIGN THE DECLARATION OF INDEPENDENCE

John Hancock was the first to sign the Declaration of Independence. He signed his name in a large, bold hand, "so that the king could read it without spectacles," he declared. Then the others signed it in order. When Charles Carroll came to sign it some one said, "You are safe, for there are so many Carrolls in Maryland that the king will not find you."



INDEPENDENCE HALL, PHILADELPHIA, WHERE THE DECLARATION OF INDEPENDENCE WAS SIGNED

"Then I will make it certain who I am," said he, and wrote Charles Carroll of Carrollton. Benjamin Franklin quaintly remarked, "Now we must all hang together, or else most assuredly we shall all hang separately."

The news of the Declaration of Independence was carried to all the colonies as fast as possible. However, news traveled slowly in those days, and it was not until August 10th that

word reached Georgia, the last of the colonies. The great news was hailed everywhere with joy. Bonfires were lighted, parades were formed, and speeches were made in honor of the event. In New York so great was the enthusiasm of the people that they pulled down a leaden statue of George III, and melted it into bullets with which to fight his soldiers.

The Declaration was read at the head of the army, and from the pulpit and platform. Everywhere, from one end of the country to the other, the people rejoiced that they were to fight henceforth for their independence as States, rather than for their rights as subjects.

5. TRIALS AND TRIUMPHS OF THE PATRIOTS

The British, who had moved out of Boston and been defeated at Charleston, now decided to attack New York and get control of the Hudson River. They thus hoped to separate New England from the rest of the country. They could then move against Boston or Philadelphia as they chose.

Washington hastened from Boston to New York and made ready for the attack. He built two forts on opposite sides of the Hudson River, and sank vessels in the channel so that the enemy's ships could not move up the river. General Putnam was stationed in a fort on Long Island, at Brooklyn Heights.

The British army, under General Howe, landed on Staten Island. They then crossed over to Long Island with a large force. General Putnam went out to meet them. A battle was fought August 27, 1776, known as the battle of Long Island. The British, however, were too strong for Putnam. The little American army was defeated, and retired within its fortifications.

General Howe now thought he could capture the American

army. That night a dense fog came up. Under cover of the fog and darkness General Washington moved all his men in boats across the river. The next morning when the British moved up to the fort they found it empty. Washington and

his army were in New York.

The British, however, planted their cannon on Brooklyn Heights and could easily command the city, so that Washington was obliged to leave New York and march northward. In this way New York fell into the hands of General Howe and the British troops.

One of the sad incidents of the occasion was the fate of Captain Nathan Hale, of Connecticut, who volunteered to enter the British lines and find out their plans. He dressed as a school teacher,



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STATUE OF NATHAN HALE

went to the British camp as though he were a resident of Long Island, and made notes of all he saw. He had gained valuable knowledge for Washington, and was on the point of taking a boat for New York, when some one recognized him and took him prisoner. Of course he was a spy and could offer no excuse. It was all in the fortune of war. He should not have been in the enemy's lines. He was hanged in a few days. His last words were, "I only regret that I have but one life to lose for my country."

Misfortunes now came fast upon General Washington and his army. General Howe advanced with a large force against one of the forts on the river, and captured it with three thousand men. General Cornwallis had arrived and taken command of the British forces, and on one side of the river was pressing Washington very hard.



WASHINGTON AND HIS ARMY RETREAT ACROSS NEW JERSEY IN THE DEAD OF WINTER, 1776

Washington ordered General Charles Lee, who was on the other side, to cross over and help him, but General Lee wilfully disobeyed orders and stayed where he was. Washington saw that he could not hold the other fort, so he left it to the enemy and began a retreat across New Jersey.

As Washington retreated he destroyed the bridges, felled trees across the roads, and destroyed all provisions on the

way, so that Cornwallis, who started in pursuit, had a hard time of it. It took the British three weeks to travel seventy miles. They were close behind the Americans, however, and often Washington was barely out of one side of a town before the red coats of the enemy were seen on the other side.

Discontent seized upon the people and army. Here was a miserable, ragged, poorly fed, badly equipped army of Americans hotly pursued by a large, well-armed, and well-fed body of British soldiers. Everybody was discouraged except Washington.

General Charles Lee with a small army followed his commander, whom he had disobeyed. One night he went to



WASHINGTON RECEIVES THE SURRENDER OF A THOUSAND HESSIAN SOLDIERS
AT TRENTON

sleep in a tavern about four miles from his troops, and the British suddenly appeared and captured him. His capture was not a serious loss, for he was a vain, envious man, who wanted to be commander-in-chief, and who gave Washington a great deal of trouble.

Washington with his army crossed the Delaware River at Trenton. It was now **December, 1776**. The weather was

cold, and the river was full of floating ice. A force of Hessian soldiers had reached Trenton and were waiting to cross the river in pursuit of Washington. They began to celebrate Christmas by drinking and carousing. They thought Washington, having crossed the river, was still in full retreat.

Christmas night, however, General Washington put his men into boats, recrossed the half-frozen Delaware, and in a furious snowstorm marched against the Hessian **Victory at Trenton** camp and surprised the soldiers at their revels. He captured a thousand prisoners and a large quantity of arms. This was the brilliant victory of Trenton, and those who were in despair now began to rejoice. It was a happy Christmas in the colonies when news of this event became known.

In spite of this, however, the poor soldiers of the patriotic army were in dreadful distress. Winter was at hand; they had no shoes, no clothing, poor food, bad shelter, and no money. They thought of their wives and children at home. They clamored for money that would buy things, and not for the paper money which Congress printed by the cartload and which was almost worthless.

In his distress, Washington wrote to his friend Robert Morris, a banker in Philadelphia, asking him to send fifty thousand dollars in cash to keep the army to- **Robert Morris raises money** gether. Robert Morris read the letter and started out before daybreak on New Year's Day. He went from house to house, begging for gold and silver to pay the half-starved soldiers, and relieve the wants of their families. He had very little trouble in raising the money. It was sent to Washington, and paid out to the soldiers, and used by them to procure the necessities of life for themselves and their families at home.

Cornwallis now moved against Washington. He found him near Trenton, where he had captured the Hessians, with the Delaware River behind him. **Victory at Princeton** "Now I will bag the old fox," he said, and went to sleep, thinking he had Washington in a trap.

That night, to deceive Cornwallis, Washington left a few men to keep his camp fires burning and make a noise as if they were throwing up breastworks. He then moved his men out of the trap and appeared at Princeton before Cornwallis knew he had gone. A battle was fought in which the British were defeated (**January 3, 1777**). Then Washington made his little army safe at Morristown for the rest of the winter.

Things began to look better for the Americans. Washington had proved to be a great general, and was the pride and hope of the American cause. In the summer of 1777, the Marquis de Lafayette, a young French nobleman, nineteen years of age, came over and offered his services to Washington. He became a famous general and was always a devoted friend of Washington and of the cause of liberty. He spent much of his own money in clothing and food for the soldiers. **Lafayette**

With him also came Baron de Kalb. Among others who came was Baron Steuben, who was of great service in drilling the soldiers and showing them how to act in battle. Kosciusko and Pulaski, two brave Polish patriots, also threw their fortunes in with the Americans who were fighting for the independence of their land.

6. SURRENDER OF BURGOYNE

The summer of 1777 had come, and the scene of war was shifted to New York. General Burgoyne, the British commander, marched from Canada into New York with eight



WAR TERRITORY IN THE EASTERN AND MIDDLE STATES

thousand men, going by way of Lake Champlain, and capturing Fort Ticonderoga on the way. He expected General Howe to move up from New York City and meet **Burgoyne's** him at Albany. Then the British would hold the **plan** Hudson River, and the plan of separating New England from the rest of the country would be carried out.

However, the plan did not succeed, as we shall see. General Schuyler, the American commander, was in front of Burgoyne's march. He burned all the bridges, cut down trees across the roads, and did everything he could to harass the British troops. So slow was Burgoyne's progress that he was twenty-four days going twenty-six miles. Burgoyne's horses died of fatigue, and food for the soldiers was scarce.

Burgoyne heard that a quantity of provisions was stored at Bennington, Vermont, and sent a thousand men to capture these supplies for his men. Colonel John **Battle of** Stark started out to meet the British. When he **Bennington** came in sight of them he said to his troops, "There they are, boys; we beat them today, or Molly Stark's a widow." The men rushed upon the "redcoats," as the British were called, and whipped them so completely that hardly a hundred out of the thousand reached safety in Burgoyne's camp.

Burgoyne went on his way towards Albany, and reached Saratoga. General Gates took command of the American forces. No help came from New York, and Bur- **Battles** goyne was in a bad plight. Fighting took place **around** at several places around Saratoga. At Stillwater **Saratoga** some of the American soldiers climbed tall trees, and, hidden by the leaves, easily killed a number of British officers.

General Benedict Arnold acted with great bravery. He could be seen on his horse riding over the field where the

smoke and flame of battle were thickest. His horse was killed under him, and he himself was wounded in the leg.

General Burgoyne withdrew toward Saratoga. He was surrounded by the Americans, and exposed to a deadly fire from their cannon and muskets. There was not a safe place even for the wounded, or for the women and children. Burgoyne decided to surrender. As the officers were deliberating about the matter, a large cannon ball swept across the table where Burgoyne and his men were sitting. This hastened their decision, and they sent word to General Gates that they would surrender.

October 17, 1777, General Burgoyne gave his sword to General Gates. His army was surrendered, and the men were marched off to Boston. It was a great victory, and entirely changed the British plans for carrying on the war. There was now no danger of the British holding all the Hudson River. They were shut up in New York City, and Washington was watching them closely.

News of the surrender of Burgoyne was received in England with great dismay. Lord North, the prime minister, proposed to end the war by granting the colonies everything they had demanded, except their independence of the mother country. But the colonies now had no idea of returning to their former condition as subjects of England, and the proposals of Lord North were rejected. In America everybody rejoiced at the great victory of Saratoga and took courage. When the king of France heard about it, he said that the Americans were worthy of independence. Accordingly he acknowledged the independence of America, and was ready to help carry on the war.

Thus we see that the battle of Saratoga had two important results: first it broke up the British plans for carrying on the

war; second, it secured for us the alliance and friendship of France.

In fact, the French government, under Louis XVI, had already secretly aided the colonists in many ways, because France desired to weaken the power of England. France and Spain both had privately advanced large sums of money to the agents of the colonists to buy arms and ammunition. The French alliance brought on war between England and France, in which Spain joined later. Thus England was not only waging war in America, but had powerful enemies to contend against in Europe. It was mainly through the efforts of Benjamin Franklin, the representative in Paris of the colonies, that the French alliance was secured.

Let us see why the British in New York did not come to the aid of Burgoyne as he expected. General Howe, who was left in command at New York, thought he could march over and capture Philadelphia, and then get back in time to send troops up the river.

The British
move on
Philadelphia.

Washington was not asleep, however, and as soon as the British moved out of New York he harassed them so much that they decided to abandon the land march and try a sea trip to Philadelphia.

General Howe then sailed south and entered Chesapeake Bay. He landed at the head of it and marched against Philadelphia. Washington had hurried to meet him, and gave battle at Brandywine Creek, but was defeated (September 11, 1777). After a two weeks' march Howe entered Philadelphia, and took possession of the capital of the United Colonies. Washington by his strategy had delayed the capture of the city so long that Howe found it was too late to help Burgoyne, so he left him to his fate. What that fate was we already know.

The summer was now over. Burgoyne had been defeated and the Hudson River was safe. The British still held New York, and General Howe was in possession of Philadelphia. Here he made himself and his troops snug for the winter. They had warm houses, plenty of food and clothing, and spent the cold winter in peace and comfort. There were so many parties and balls that Franklin wrote from Paris that Howe had not taken Philadelphia, but Philadelphia had taken Howe.

Not so the poor American troops under the brave Washington. They had retired to Valley Forge, about fourteen miles from Philadelphia, to watch the British if they should start for New York. Rude log cabins were built, lined with clay, each accommodating about a dozen men.

Then the winter settled down, the snow fell, and the rain and sleet came. It was a terrible winter. There was but little wood to be had, and often the men had to huddle together to keep warm. There was not enough food, and frequently the soldiers were on the point of starving. There was almost no clothing, the soldiers were ragged and barefoot, and often the snow was stained from their bleeding feet.

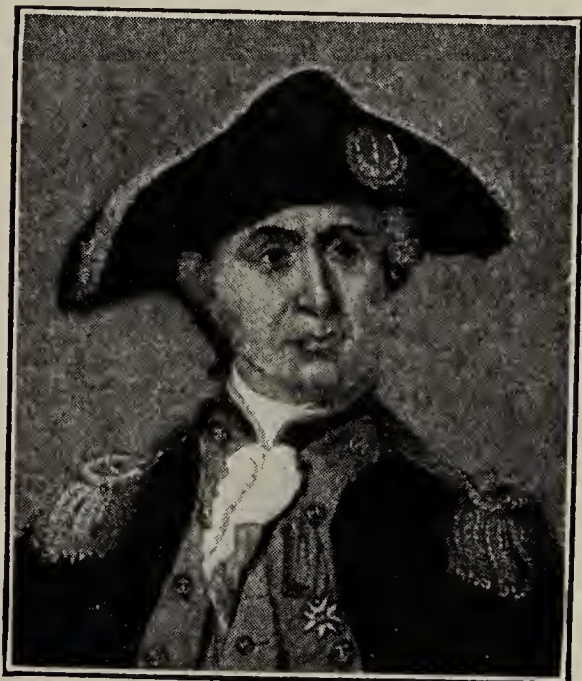
While these things were happening on land, events were also taking place on the sea. England was the mistress of the seas. The American colonies had almost no navy, and yet their few vessels won immortal fame during the war. A few ships, fitted out at private expense, called privateers, and commissioned to prey upon the enemy, spread terror among the British merchant ships.

In 1775 Congress decided to organize a navy of six vessels for protecting the coasts. Among the commanders commissioned at that time was John Paul Jones, a Scotchman,

scarcely twenty years of age, but one of the most skillful and daring seamen that ever handled a ship. It was he who first raised the American flag at sea.

His vessel was named the *Bonhomme Richard*. During the time he was commander he fought twenty-three battles at sea, captured four large vessels, and made his name a terror to British seamen everywhere.

September 23, 1779, Jones was cruising off the English coast, and fell in with a fleet of merchant ships convoyed by the *Serapis* and another war vessel. He gave chase to the British ship and soon came up with the *Serapis*. It was the first time an English and an American war vessel had met upon the high seas, and both commanders were eager for the battle.



JOHN PAUL JONES, WHO FIRST RAISED
THE AMERICAN FLAG AT SEA

In those days vessels were made of wood, and fighting was at close range. The two ships came together just as the sun was setting. The British commander cried out, "What ship is that?" Jones replied by hurling an eighteen-pound shot that went tearing into the *Serapis*, destroying a gun carriage. The British ship poured a broad-side into the *Bonhomme Richard* that splintered the mast, killed several men, and exploded a part of the magazine.

A most terrible naval engagement now ensued between the two vessels. The full moon was shining, and it was almost as bright as day. The sea was calm. Great crowds

The *Bon-
homme
Richard* en-
gages the
Serapis

of people on the Flamborough Hills in England were watching the deadly combat. The vessels sailed around each other,



THE "BONHOMME RICHARD" CAPTURES THE
"SERAPIS"

delivering their fire with terrible effect. Cannon balls tore through the rigging, the ships were pierced, the decks ran red with the blood of stricken men.

After a while the British commander called out, "Are you ready to surrender?" "Surrender," answered Jones, "we have not begun to fight yet!"

The two ships grappled. Explosives were thrown on the decks of the *The Serapis*, several ^{surrenders} cannon burst, and both ships soon were on fire. Jones's ship was in a sinking condition, but he

gathered his men in a final attack that bore away the enemy's mast. The commander of the *Serapis* lowered his flag and agreed to surrender.

John Paul Jones took possession of the *Serapis*, extinguished the flames, and from the decks of the captured ship saw his own vessel sink to the bottom of the sea. It was the greatest naval victory of the war. It lowered the pride and humbled the boast of the British navy for many years.

7. THE WAR IN THE SOUTH

After the winter of 1777 had passed, the British left Philadelphia and started for New York. Washington followed them closely and a battle was fought at Monmouth, which would have been a brilliant victory for the Americans if General Charles Lee (who had been exchanged for a British general) had not directly disobeyed orders.

**Battle of
Monmouth,
June 28, 1778**

Instead of attacking the British, he retreated, against the positive orders of Washington. The Commander-in-Chief was angry. He sternly rebuked Lee in no measured words, and ordered him to the rear. Later Lee was tried by court-martial and dismissed from the army.

This was the last great battle on Northern soil. The British reached New York, and Washington stretched his lines around them. Here we shall leave him watching the enemy ceaselessly day and night. For the next three years the scene of war was changed to the Southern Colonies, where the great conflict was destined to come to an end.

The British plan was to begin with Georgia and conquer each colony northward separately. To carry out this design a fleet sailed from New York, landed at Savannah, and captured the city (December 29, 1778). A short time after, a British force captured Augusta and took possession of other small towns. This remote colony offered as brave resistance as it could, but, left to its own resources, it was no match for the trained soldiers of England. The British kept Savannah in spite of a desperate effort to retake it in the fall of 1779.

**British over-
run Georgia
and South
Carolina**

In the spring of 1780 a British fleet under Sir Henry Clinton and Lord Cornwallis sailed from New York to Savannah.

The troops went overland to attack Charleston, where General Lincoln had collected a small army for defense. Besieged by land and sea, the city could not hold out, and was surrendered with all the soldiers and a large quantity of supplies (May 12, 1780). Thus Georgia and South Carolina fell under the control of the British.



FRANCIS MARION AND HIS MEN FROM THEIR HIDING PLACES WAGE WAR ON THE BRITISH IN THE SOUTH

Clinton sailed back to New York, leaving Cornwallis to push the conquest northward. The British plan so far had succeeded, and two of the Southern Colonies were for a time in their hands.

The patriots in the South could now offer but little resistance to the British. War was kept up in an irregular way by

small bands of soldiers, who gathered in swamps and dense thickets and descending upon the British, shot at them from ambush, captured their horses, harassed their rear guards, and, if pursued, vanished into the swamps. Irregular warfare

Among the leaders were Francis Marion, who was called the "Swamp Fox," and Thomas Sumter, the "Carolina Game Cock." These men led brave bands of South Carolina patriots, hovering over the enemy like a cloud, worrying them always, but rarely coming to actual battle. When pursued they and their men fled to the swamps for safety. Francis Marion

Once, under a flag of truce, Marion met a British officer and invited him to dinner. When the meal was ready, it consisted of a few roasted potatoes, served on pieces of bark. "Do you usually have this for food?" asked the British officer in astonishment. "Yes," said Marion, "except that today we have a few more than usual, on account of our guest." Marion's dinner

When the officer went back to his friends, he told them it was idle and foolish to fight against soldiers who would endure such privations for the sake of liberty.

Everywhere the people suffered from the cruelty of the British troops. Houses were burned, crops were destroyed, cattle were stolen, and often murder was committed. The patriotic women made bullets out of their pewter dishes, made clothing for the soldiers in the field, and hid their provisions from the bands of Tories. Sufferings of the people

Under this condition in the South, Cornwallis moved out of Charleston towards Camden, S. C. General Gates, who had been appointed to the command of the American army in the South, was on his way to meet Cornwallis. The armies met at Camden, August 16, 1780, Battle of Camden

and after a stubborn fight the Americans were badly defeated.

General Gates, who was by no means an able officer, ran for three days and a half, leaving his army utterly beaten and demoralized. It was a crushing blow. Cornwallis was now free to march into North Carolina.

So far the British had been in the South a year and a half, and had captured Savannah and Charleston, had overrun Georgia and South Carolina, and had won the battle of Camden. The tide was now to turn, however, and they were to win no more victories of consequence.

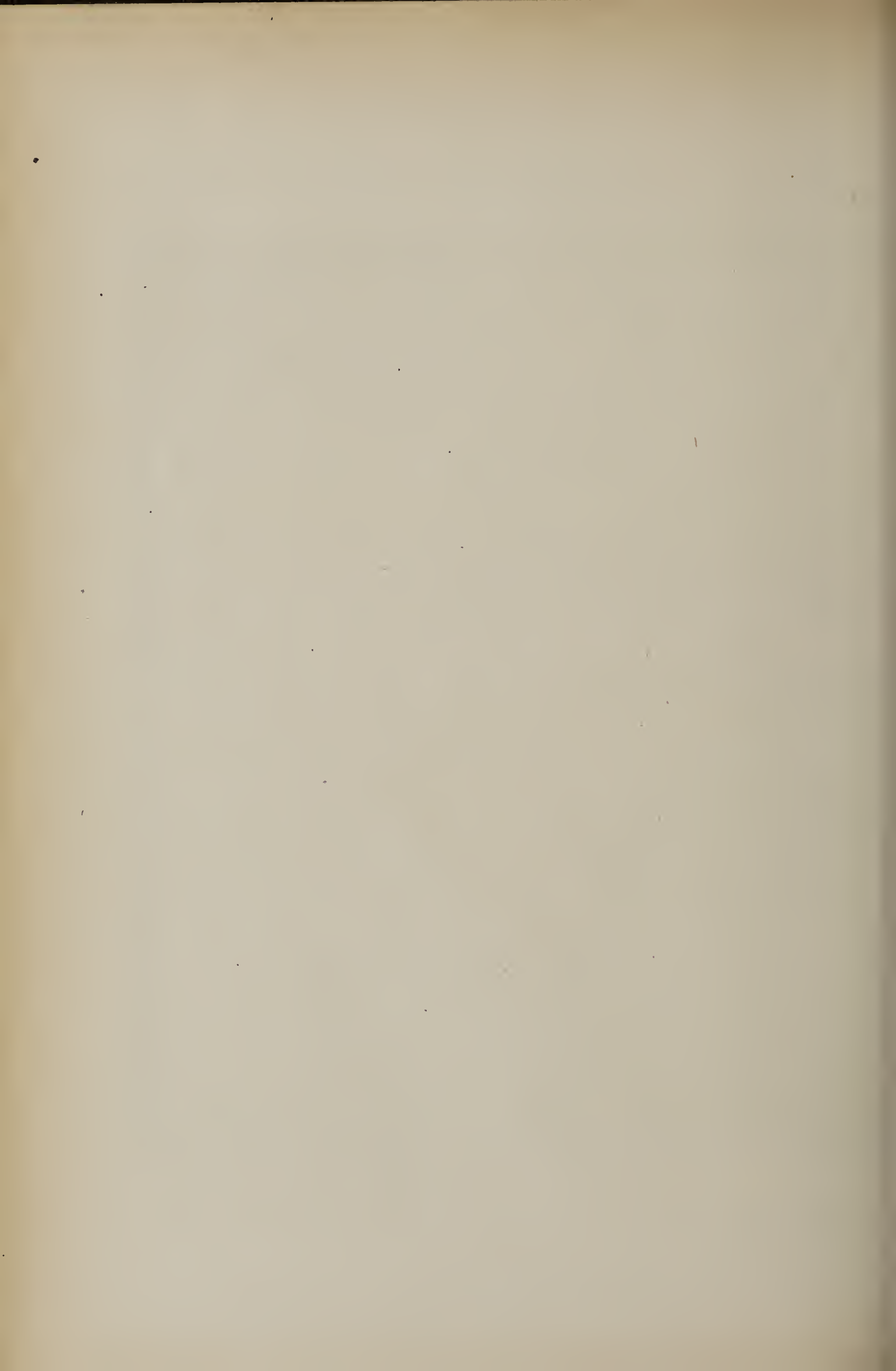
As Cornwallis advanced, the hardy mountaineers gathered before him from hill and valley, bringing muskets, rifles, and shotguns. When the British reached King's Mountain in upper South Carolina, an army was there to meet them. Many of the hardy settlers from Kentucky and Tennessee had come over the mountains led by John Sevier to stop the progress of the British forces. Armed with guns, knives, and tomahawks, and clad in buckskin shirts, these untrained soldiers fell upon the British so mercilessly that hundreds were slain and the rest taken prisoners (**October 7, 1780**). This great victory changed the fortunes of war.

General Nathanael Greene succeeded General Gates. A British force under Tarleton met an American force under Morgan at the Cowpens in South Carolina, not far from King's Mountain, and the British suffered another terrible defeat. Greene now led Cornwallis on a long chase until the two armies reached Guilford Court House in North Carolina, where a battle occurred (**March 15, 1781**).

Here the Americans had to retreat, but the British suf-



WAR TERRITORY IN THE SOUTH



ferred so badly that it was said, "another such victory would destroy the British army."

Cornwallis now started north. What became of him we shall see later on. Greene, leaving Washington to look after Cornwallis, turned his army south, and by his **Greene** skill and the bravery of his troops soon drove the **turns south** remaining British troops back from the territory of Georgia and South Carolina, shutting them up in Savannah and Charleston.

The war was over in the South. It had lasted for three years, and many hard battles had been fought and a great deal of suffering endured. Greene was in command of the situation, and Cornwallis was on his way to meet his fate in Virginia.

While the war was going on in the South, one of the saddest events of American history occurred at West Point, on the Hudson River, in **September, 1780**. This was the **Treason of Benedict Arnold** treason of Benedict Arnold. Arnold had been a **Benedict Arnold** brave soldier, but was disappointed about promotion. He had fallen into bad habits, and had been reprimanded by Washington for his conduct. This had made him angry, and he determined to turn traitor to the American cause.

He asked Washington to put him in charge of West Point, a strong fort on the Hudson River. This Washington readily granted. From that point Arnold secretly sent word to the British in New York that he was willing to surrender the fort for thirty thousand dollars and an officer's position in the British army.

Major John André, a brave young officer, was sent from the British lines to meet Arnold. They had a meeting at midnight on the banks of the river. Arnold gave up im-

portant papers describing the fort, and agreed upon how it was to be surrendered.

André started by land down the river. All went well until he reached Tarrytown. Here three men stopped him and asked what he was doing. Thinking they were friends, André

replied, "I am a British officer on important business. I hope you will not detain me."

Seeing they had made an important capture, they ordered André to dismount. André

André was alarmed at the mistake he had made, and showed the pass that Arnold had given him. It was too late, however. They searched his clothes and found the plans of West Point and other papers in his boots. André offered the men his watch, horse, and indeed everything he had, if they would let him go. The patriots



ANDRÉ ON HIS WAY FROM WEST POINT IS CAPTURED BY THREE AMERICANS

sternly refused, and André was taken to the American lines.

Arnold was at breakfast after his meeting with André and was handed a note. It told him a British officer had been arrested inside the lines. Hastily rising, he told his wife of his danger, mounted a horse, reached the river, and was safely carried to New York and to the British.

André was tried by court-martial as a spy. His fate was a sad one, for he was a noble young officer, and much beloved by his friends. He was hanged in October, 1780.

8. THE SURRENDER OF CORNWALLIS

Let us now return to Cornwallis. After the battle at Guilford Court House, instead of following Greene southward, Cornwallis turned into Virginia. Lafayette was in front of him, and so embarrassed his movements that he could not ravage Virginia as he hoped. Cornwallis then moved over to Yorktown, on the coast.

Washington, who all the time had been watching the British in New York, now saw a chance to end the war. Leaving a small force to protect the Hudson, he quietly marched down to Virginia, joined his forces with ^{Yorktown} the French, and appeared before Yorktown, almost before the British knew he had left New York. At the same time a French fleet appeared in Chesapeake Bay, and Cornwallis was thus shut up in Yorktown, besieged by sea and by land.

Day by day the works of the British fell under the ceaseless fire of the American guns. Cornwallis had no hope of escape, and so in despair he hoisted the white flag. **October 19, 1781**, he formally surrendered his whole army.

The scene of the surrender of Cornwallis was most impressive. The British army marched out of Yorktown with their flags furled, guns on shoulder, and were ^{The surrender of Cornwallis} drawn up in order opposite the American troops. It was two o'clock in the afternoon. Washington and Rochambeau, the French general, with their staff officers, sat on their horses at the head of the troops.

Cornwallis was not present. He was represented by General O'Hara, who approached Washington, saluted, and apol-

ogized for Cornwallis's absence, saying he was too ill to be present. Washington returned the salute, saying that General Lincoln would receive the surrender of the troops. Lincoln



CORNWALLIS SURRENDERS AT YORKTOWN, OCTOBER 19, 1781

had been obliged to surrender his own sword to Clinton at Charleston the year before, and the commission to receive the surrender of the British at Yorktown was very pleasant to him.

The order to "ground arms" was given. Some of the British soldiers threw their guns down so hard as almost to break them. A sharp order corrected this. The prisoners then marched back to Yorktown to await further orders.

A courier on a swift horse started to Philadelphia with the news. As he rode into the town late at night he told

The news in Philadelphia the watchmen of the city. They cried out the great news, "Past two o'clock, and Cornwallis is taken!" Soon everybody was up, bells were rung, bonfires were lighted, and people were shouting, wild with joy. Early next morning, Congress met and marched to one of the churches and gave thanks to God for the deliverance of the colonies. The old doorkeeper of Congress was so overcome with emotion that he dropped dead.



"PAST TWO O'CLOCK, AND CORNWALLIS IS TAKEN!"

The news in England was received in quite an opposite way. The British prime minister threw up his hands and exclaimed, "My God! it is all over!" The people demanded that the war should cease. They were tired of it, and were glad to let America have her freedom at any cost.

While the surrender at Yorktown practically ended the war, peace was not secured until a treaty was signed between the colonies and Great Britain, which took place in **Treaty of Paris, September 3, 1783**. This was known as **Paris** the Treaty of Paris. The British agreed to leave America,

the captured cities were restored, and peace once more reigned. By the terms of the treaty the United Colonies of America became free and independent States.

Washington now resigned his commission as Commander-in-Chief of the army, bade farewell to his officers and men, and retired to his home at Mount Vernon, on the Potomac River.

Let us see some of the results of the Revolutionary War.

In the first place, the people of the United Colonies of America became free and independent. They were no longer **The colonies now free** subject to the king of England. They were free to make their own laws, to choose their own rulers, and to manage their affairs as they pleased. Henceforth England had nothing whatever to do with them and could not interfere in their affairs.

In the second place, the different colonies learned to depend upon one another. They had stood together in their demands **Mutually dependent** upon the mother country, and their soldiers had fought side by side. The cause of one had been the cause of all. It had become very evident that they were like a bundle of sticks, very strong when tied together, very weak when taken separately.

In the third place, the spirit of liberty had grown very dear to the American heart. The colonies had been planted **Spirit of liberty** with that idea, they had grown with that purpose, and they had fought the great war with that hope. The country had been baptized with the blood of its heroes. Soldiers and citizens had sacrificed and many had suffered that the colonies might be free.

9. HOW THE NORTHWEST TERRITORY WAS SAVED FOR THE UNION

While the war was going on along the Atlantic seaboard, two brave men were doing great things beyond the Allegheny Mountains, in the territory that had been gained by the French and Indian War. All this vast region was a wilderness, in which were few white people and many Indians.



BOONE'S TRAIL

In 1775 Daniel Boone of North Carolina moved into the regions of Kentucky and founded the town of Boonesborough. He and his family, with other settlers, about fifty in all, moved across the mountains with their beds, clothing, and provisions strapped on the backs of horses, and driving cattle before them.

Daniel Boone moves into Kentucky

Settlers came in from Virginia, and other small settlements were made. The Revolution came on, and the Indians, urged by the British, swooped down upon the little forts, burned the houses, and often captured the settlers, then murdered them, or took them off to their villages.

Boone himself was taken prisoner one day while he was boiling water for salt, and was carried off by the Indians. He heard of their plot to destroy Boonesborough and kill all the people. He managed to escape, and reached the town in five days, traveling more than a hundred and sixty miles. During this time he ate but one

Boone saves his town

meal, which was a turkey he had killed. He reached the town just in time to have Boonesborough fortified and save the place from the Indians.

All the region north of the Ohio and around the Great Lakes was known as the Northwest Territory. The English had come into possession of it after the French and Indian War, and had built forts at Kaskaskia, Vincennes, and Detroit. These were so far away from the rest of the country



DANIEL BOONE BUILDS A FORT IN THE WILDERNESS OF KENTUCKY

that during the war they were almost forgotten.

There was one man, however, who saw that this territory must be wrested

George
Rogers
Clark

from the English, in order to hold it for the

United States when the time came to make a treaty of peace. He was a bold young frontiersman of Kentucky, named George Rogers Clark. Clark rode his horse all the way to Virginia and appeared before Patrick Henry, who was then governor. "I desire to raise a company of soldiers to defend Kentucky and to drive the English out of the Northwest Territory," said he.

The governor was pleased with the idea, and gave orders to enlist seven companies of men who were to "defend Kentucky." Nothing was said about the Northwest Territory, for that part of the plan had to be kept secret.

The "Long
Knives"

About one hundred and fifty men, hardy sons of the frontier, with fur caps, fringed hunting shirts, buckskin leggings and moccasins, and armed with long

rifles, tomahawks, and knives, enlisted for the enterprise. They soon became known as "Long Knives," on account of their deadly aim with a gun, and their fearless natures.

The party dropped down the Ohio River in boats until they reached the site of the present city of Louisville. Here Clark landed, drilled his soldiers into some kind of military order, and told them of his plan to conquer the territory. After resting several days

Journey
through the
wilderness

they proceeded down the river, and landed at a place about one hundred and thirty miles from Kaskaskia. He decided to go on foot through the wilderness in order that the spies on the river might not give word of his approach. The soldiers waded through the swamps, and toiled through the long grass of the prairies, on their way northward.



ROUTE OF GEORGE ROGERS CLARK

Clark appeared before Kaskaskia July 4th, 1778, and found most of the people of the village at a dance. The governor was in bed. Nobody had the least idea that an enemy had reached the fort. Clark and his men marched to the hall where the dancing was going on. He stood at the open door, leaning against the post. Some one saw him, and raised the cry of "The Long Knives!" Instantly there was great alarm, but Clark quietly said to the people, "You may go on with your fun, but remember you

Capture of
Kaskaskia

are dancing under the flag of Virginia, and not under that of Great Britain.”

The next day the fort surrendered, and the priests came to Clark and begged him not to march the people off into the wilderness without food and clothing. “Do you take us for savages?” asked Clark. “We are Americans, and you

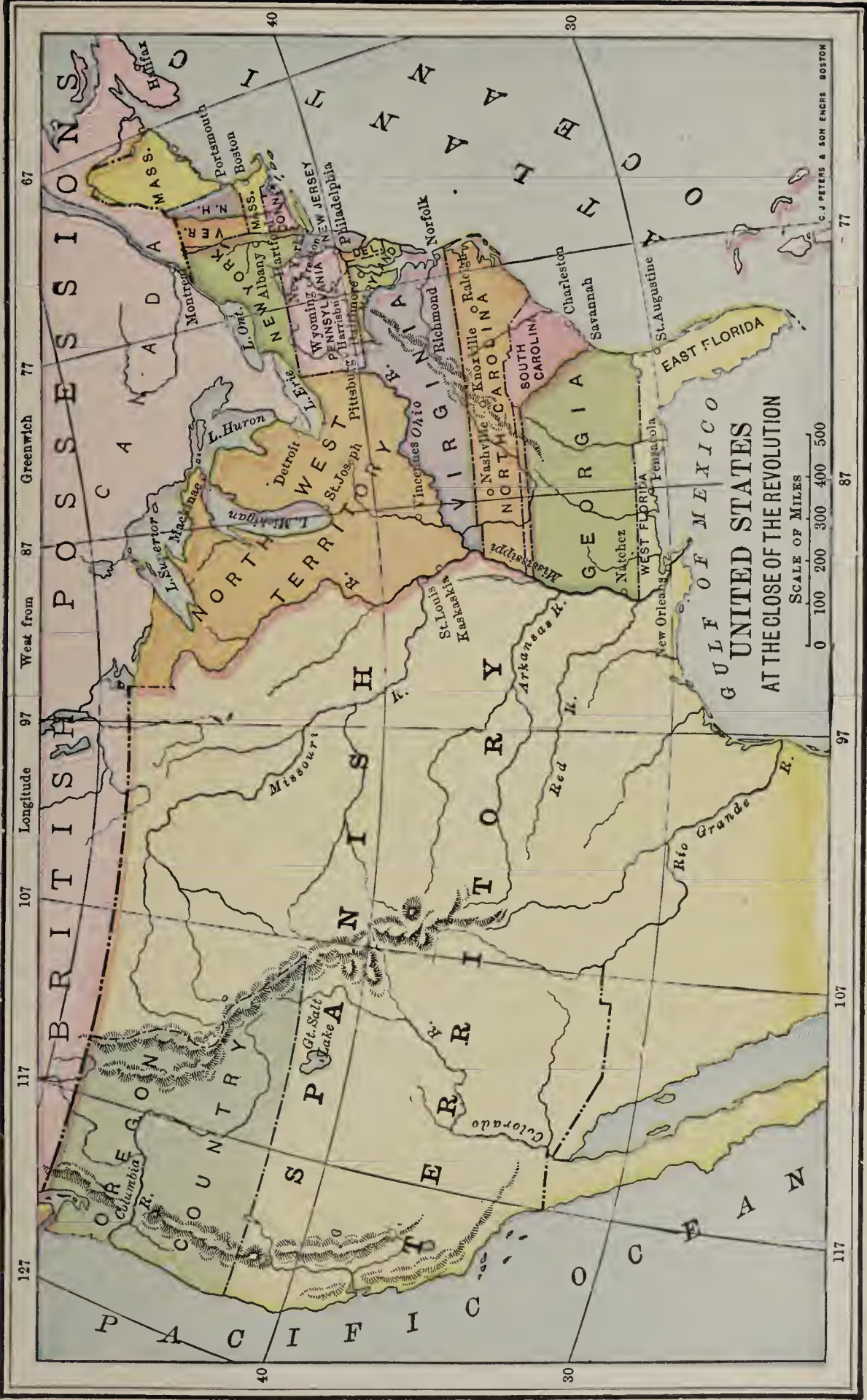


CLARK AND HIS MEN WADE THROUGH THE WABASH RIVER

can tell your people to go on with their business as usual, for nobody will be disturbed.”

In February, 1779, Clark decided to march against Vincennes and capture that fort from the English. It was in the dead of winter, the river was frozen, snow covered the fields, and the forests were bare of game. The British commander had no idea that an enemy could reach him in such weather. Clark set out, followed by his brave men, some on foot and some on horseback.

All day long they trudged through the cold and snow, and at night built great fires to warm themselves and dry their clothes. The Wabash River was swollen, and the shivering



C. J. PETERS & SON ENGRAVERS BOSTON

men had to march or force their horses through freezing water to cross the drowned lands.

At one time the men were so discouraged that they held back. Clark selected a tall soldier, six feet four inches high, mounted a drummer boy on his shoulders, and started him through the icy flood. The drummer boy beat his drum, and Clark commanded, "Forward — March!" Amused and delighted the brave men waded in and crossed over. In a few days they came in sight of the fort of Vincennes, where they were joined by another party having several small cannon.

Clark sent word to the fort to surrender. The governor, whose name was Hamilton, was called "the hair buyer," because he paid for scalps of the white people of Capture of Kentucky that the Indians brought to him. Vincennes Hamilton refused to surrender, and Clark began to bombard the fort. Hamilton asked for a conference with Clark. While the conference was going on, a party of Indians came along with a lot of scalps they had taken over in Kentucky, expecting the usual reward. When Clark's men saw them they tomahawked the whole party, and threw their bodies into the river.

Hamilton surrendered Vincennes soon afterwards. He and his men were sent to Virginia as prisoners of war. Thus it was that Illinois, Indiana, and all the Northwest Territory came into the hands of the Americans through the bravery of Colonel Clark.

This was very important to our country. When the treaty of peace was signed, it was agreed that England and the United States should each keep what territory it held at the close of the war. Canada remained in possession of England, but the Northwest Territory, out of which the States of Ohio, Indiana, Michigan, Illinois, and Wisconsin, and a part of

Minnesota have since been made, remained in possession of the United States.

TOPICS

George III and the American Colonies. Riches for England; provision of the Navigation Acts. Buying from English merchants. Laws regulating manufactures; wool; iron; hats. Heavy taxes. Smuggling. Writs of assistance; searching the houses. James Otis. George III and his friends; Lord North. Rotten boroughs. Tyranny of the king. English friends of America; William Pitt.

First Acts of Resistance. The Stamp Act; its provisions; how the people treated it. Col. Barré's protest; Sons of Liberty. Patrick Henry's speech; the closing words and their effect. Benjamin Franklin and his influence. Franklin in Paris. Tax on tea, etc.; how the people treated it. The Massachusetts circular; action of George III. Troops in Boston; Boston Massacre. Samuel Adams. Tea in Boston harbor; destroying the tea; other tea parties. Punishing the colonists; closing Boston harbor; relief from other colonies; message from South Carolina. Changing the charter of Massachusetts. General Thomas Gage. First Continental Congress.

First Battle of the Revolution. Storing war material at Concord. Intention of Gage. Ride of Paul Revere. Hancock and Adams. Rising of the people. Battle of Lexington; retreat of the British. The Mecklenburg Declaration. Gathering of the soldiers; Israel Putnam. Second Continental Congress. George Washington. Preparations around Boston; battle of Bunker Hill; the third attack. Washington's comment. Ethan Allen captures Fort Ticonderoga.

The Progress of the War. Washington takes command; his headquarters; our first flag; his army; preparations for war. Threatening Boston. The British leave Boston. Arnold's march to Canada. Montgomery's attack on Quebec; result. Attack on Charleston; Fort Moultrie; William Jasper's bravery. Hiring the Hessians. Richard Henry Lee's resolutions. Committee on Declaration of Independence; signing the Declaration; rejoicing of the people.

Trials and Triumphs of the Patriots. Plans of the British. Battle of Long Island. Washington enters and leaves New York. Story of Nathan Hale. Misfortunes to Washington's army. Retreat across

New Jersey. Incidents of the retreat; discontent of the people. Charles Lee. Incidents at Trenton. Crossing the Delaware. Victory at Trenton. Conditions of the army. Robert Morris raises money. Victory at Princeton. Lafayette and others.

Surrender of Burgoyne. Movements of Burgoyne's army. Burgoyne's plan. Schuyler's interference and its results. Battle of Bennington. Battles around Saratoga. Burgoyne's plight; his surrender, and the result. Proposals of Lord North. Rejoicing in America. French alliance. Relations of England and France. The British move on Philadelphia. Battle of Brandywine. Capture of Philadelphia. Hardships at Valley Forge. American privateers. Arranging a navy. John Paul Jones. *Bonhomme Richard*. Capture of the *Serapis*.

The War in the South. Battle of Monmouth; action of General Charles Lee; Washington's rebuke. Washington surrounds New York. British capture Savannah and Augusta. Charleston attacked and captured. Irregular warfare. Francis Marion and Thomas Sumter. Marion's dinner. Suffering of the people. Battle of Camden. Battle of King's Mountain. General Nathanael Greene. Battle of Guilford Court House. Benedict Arnold; meeting with André; capture of André; flight of Arnold; execution of André.

Surrender of Cornwallis. Movements of Cornwallis. Yorktown. Surrender of Cornwallis; scene of the surrender. The news in Philadelphia. The news in England. The Treaty of Paris. Results of the war; independence; mutual dependence of colonies; spirit of liberty.

How the Northwest Territory was Saved for the Union. Daniel Boone in Kentucky; settlers; adventures of Boone. The Northwest Territory. George Rogers Clark. The "Long Knives." Clark's journey down the Ohio; his march through the wilderness. Capture of Kaskaskia. Treatment of the people. March to Vincennes. Forging the Wabash and crossing the drowned lands. Capture of Vincennes. Importance of Clark's enterprise.

SUBJECTS FOR STUDY

What mistakes of judgment did George III make in the management of the colonies? What motives inspired the colonies to resistance, and were they worthy motives? What traits of character did George Washington have that made him a great soldier and a great man? Discuss the

mistakes made by the British commanders in America. Discuss the most notable instances of personal courage and endurance.

COMPOSITION

Suppose you had been a witness of the destruction of the tea in Boston harbor, and write an account of it.

Write an account of Paul Revere's ride. Suppose you had been at Valley Forge, and describe your hardships.

MAP STUDIES

Locate the battle of Lexington and the retreat of the British. Locate Ticonderoga. Trace the retreat of Washington across New Jersey. Locate Trenton and Princeton. Locate Bennington; Saratoga. Locate Camden; King's Mountain; Yorktown. Describe the trail of Clark and his men. Locate Kaskaskia; Vincennes.

Collateral Reading. "Twice Told Tales," by Hawthorne. "The Partisans," by Simms. "Boys of '76," by Coffin. "The Pilot," by Cooper. "The Spy," by Cooper. "Camps and Firesides of the Revolution," by Hart. "Paul Revere's Ride," by Longfellow. "The Concord Hymn," by Emerson.

CHAPTER VIII

ESTABLISHING THE NATION

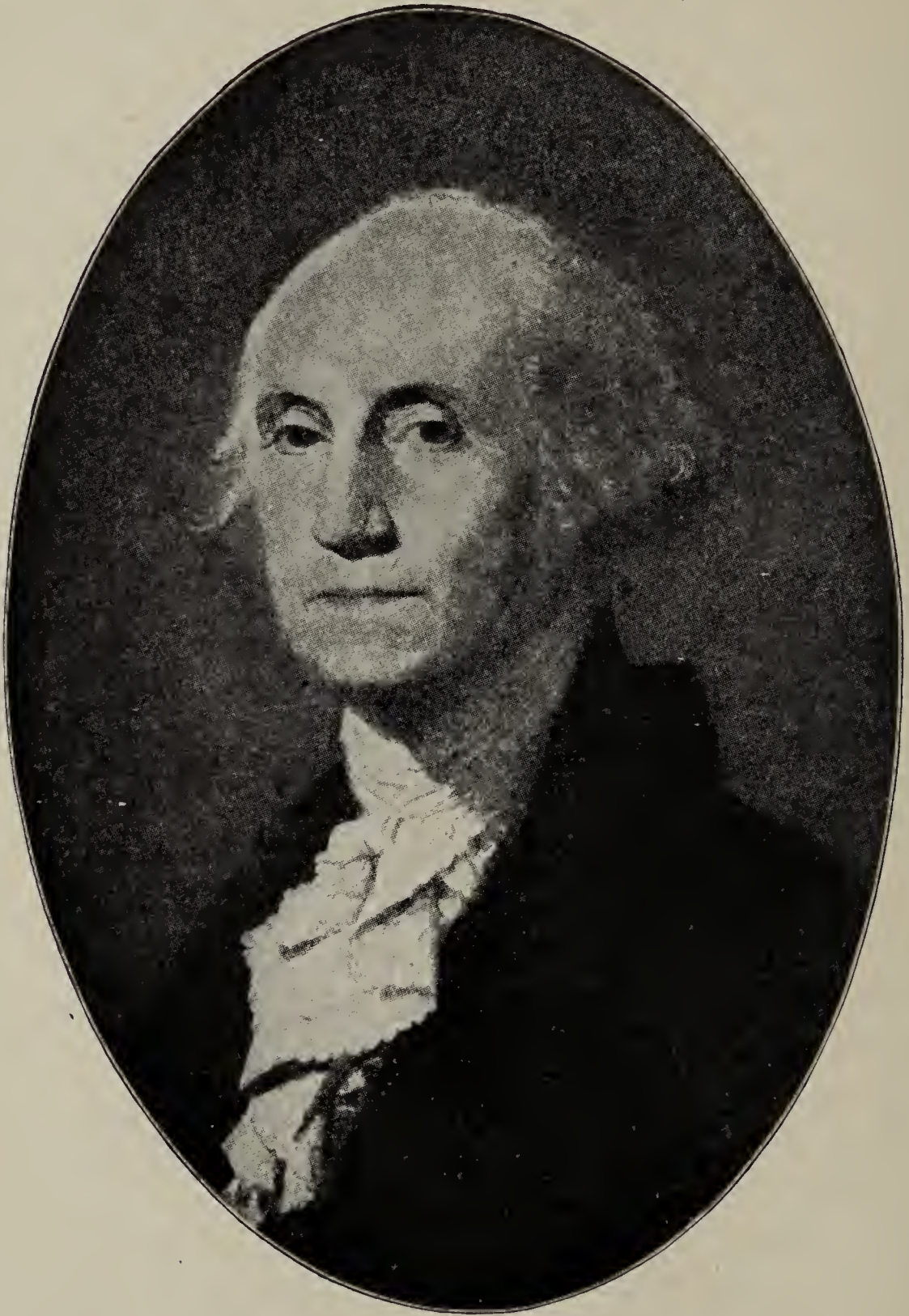
1. THE CRITICAL PERIOD

At the close of the Revolution there were about four million people in the United States. There were no large cities such as we now have. Philadelphia was the largest, having forty-two thousand people; New York came next with thirty-three thousand; then Boston with eighteen thousand; and Baltimore with thirteen thousand.

Even these places had the appearance of large country towns, being badly paved, with ill-lighted streets and poorly-kept sidewalks. The houses were mainly of wood, very comfortable indeed, but far from being the splendid dwellings we now see in our cities.

The long war had cost a large sum of money, and the States were heavily in debt. There was almost **Financial** no gold or silver money. There was plenty of **distress** paper currency, but it was worthless, because the government could not redeem it in coin.

A pound of sugar sold for \$10 in continental money. A barrel of flour cost \$1500. When the people wished to express their contempt of anything, they said, "It is not worth a continental." In fact, of so little value was the paper or "continental money" that two hundred dollars of it was not worth one gold dollar. Indeed, the people refused to take it, preferring to barter, or exchange, their goods with one another.



GEORGE WASHINGTON
"FIRST IN WAR, FIRST IN PEACE, AND FIRST IN THE HEARTS OF HIS COUNTRYMEN"

The people at large, however, had not suffered during the war. The fishing industry and the shipping business had been seriously affected, but the farm products and the manufactures amply supplied the needs of the people. In spite of the losses by the war, the population had increased three hundred thousand, and the country was richer and stronger at the close of the war than at the beginning. Most of the distress of the soldiers in the field had arisen from lack of good management.

**Prosperity
in spite of
war**

During the Revolution the various colonies had been held together by a common danger. So long as there was an enemy to fight, all the people from all the colonies had stood bravely together for the common good. Instead of being an army for each colony, there was one army for all. In the same way all the war measures, such as the foreign loans of money and the treaties of peace and friendship, had been in the names of all the colonies united, and not for each one separately.

**A common
union**

For the purpose of a common union during the war, a Continental Congress had been held. It was composed of delegates from each colony, who met to agree in the name of each colony upon measures that were for the good of all. Articles of Confederation were adopted in 1777 for the government of the country and the conduct of the war.

As a matter of fact, the Continental Congress under the Articles of Confederation had but little power. It could pass laws, but could not make the people obey them. It needed money to carry on the war, but could not force the colonies to furnish it. It needed soldiers for the army, but had no power to levy troops. The Continental Congress could hardly do more than advise the colonies about certain matters, and it

**Limited
powers of the
Continental
Congress**

was for the colonies themselves to decide whether they would follow the advice or not.

After the war was over, the colonies, which had become independent States, became jealous of one another, and disputes arose about boundary lines, trade, and the right of each State legislature to do as it pleased. It was even suggested that a

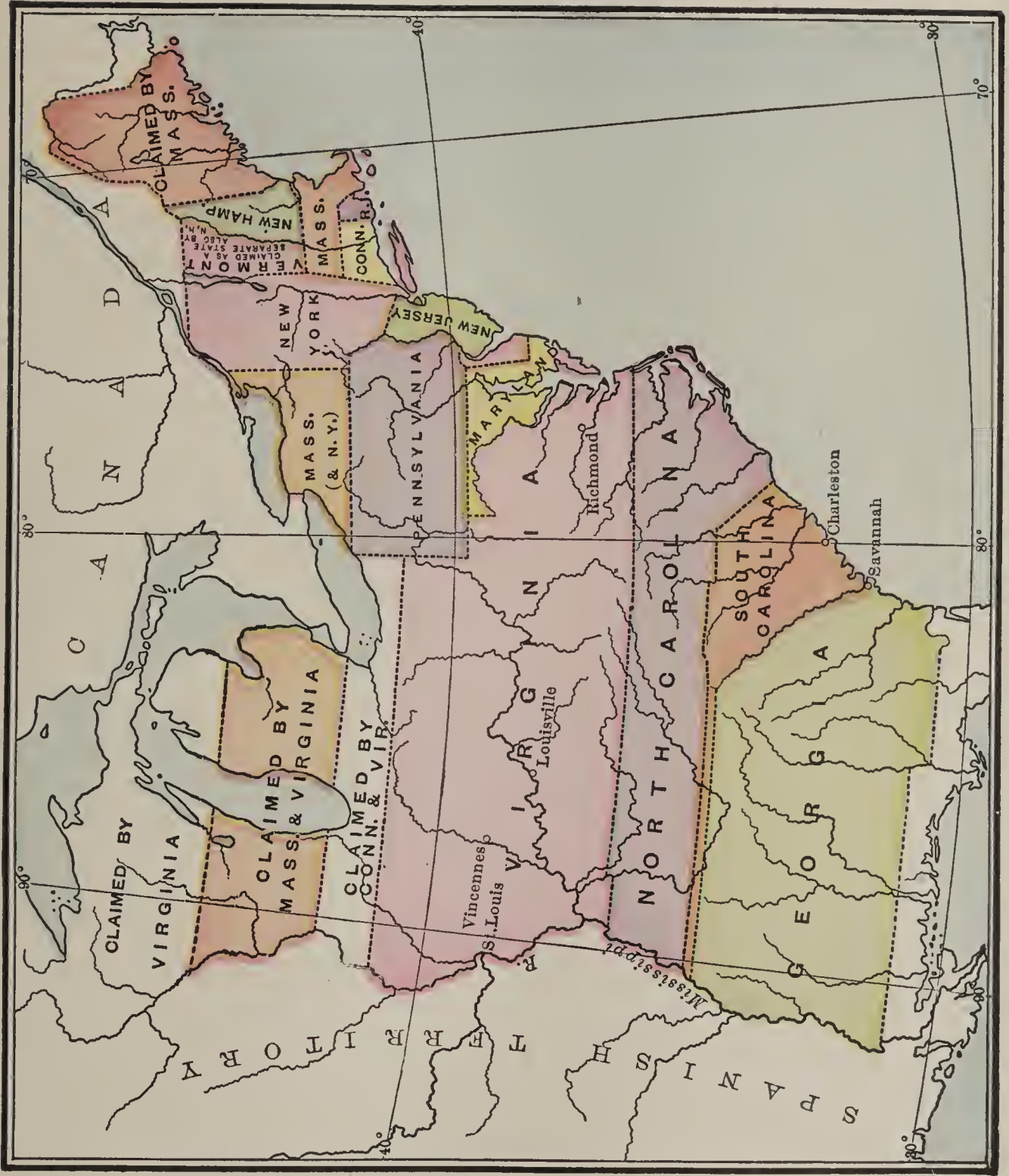


DANIEL SHAYS RAISES AN INSURRECTION

man should not buy and sell outside his own State without paying duty. If a farmer took his produce, or a merchant took his goods, from one State to another, he might be called on to pay a tax for the right to sell in that State.

Some of the people were so burdened with debt that they could not pay what they owed. In Massachusetts, in 1786, **Shays's rebellion** so many poor people had been sued for debt and thrown into prison that a rebellion of the farmers occurred. Daniel Shays raised an army of two thousand farmers, marched to the courthouses in Springfield and in Worcester, and demanded that all the courts adjourn and that all lawsuits for debt be stopped. It took a military force to put down this rebellion, but it showed the temper of the people.

The country was fast drifting to discord. The thirteen States were so many separate governments, quarreling with



LAND CLAIMS IN 1783

one another and likely to go to war at any time. The wise men of the nation saw very plainly that something had to be done to bring order out of this confusion.

The one thing that held the people together was the great country known as the Northwest Territory. This territory was at first claimed by several States, but at length by agreement became the joint property of all the States. If land in this territory could be sold to settlers to pay the public debt and to reward the soldiers of each State for their services and losses in the war, all would yet be well.

The North-
west Territory
a common
property

In July, 1787, an ordinance was passed by Congress to organize and govern the Northwest Territory. This famous "Ordinance of 1787" provided for the future division of the territory into States, for personal and religious liberty, and for means of education for the settlers.

Ordinance of
1787

It also guaranteed civil rights and proper treatment of the Indians. The most important provision of the ordinance was that which excluded slavery forever from the territory. This ordinance has been pronounced second only in importance as a great State paper to the Declaration of Independence itself.

The following facts, then, made a better union of the States necessary :

1. The universal distress of the people after the war.
2. The need of a common defense for them all.
3. The need of a money that was good everywhere.
4. The danger and expense of separate governments.
5. The public debt, for which all were responsible.
6. The Northwest Territory, which they held in common.
7. The lack of power of the old Congress.

It became plain that we could not become a great nation unless we had a better union, under a written agreement or

Constitution. How this union came about, and what the Constitution is, we shall see in the next lesson.

2. THE CONSTITUTION OF THE UNITED STATES

The most important event in the history of our country as a separate and distinct nation is the making and adoption of the Constitution. The Constitution is the written agreement entered into voluntarily by all the States, by which they bind themselves together under one government and make of themselves one nation.

This noble instrument is worthy of our study. It was made by the greatest men of the nation, and we have lived under its provisions ever since. It has been called "the most wonderful work ever struck off at a given time by the brain and purpose of man."¹

In 1787 a convention of fifty-five men, sent as delegates from the States, met in Philadelphia for the purpose of making the Constitution. They met in the same room in which the Declaration of Independence had been signed. George Washington was chosen president of the convention.

The session lasted from May to September. The interests of all the States were carefully considered, and many compromises were made. The Constitution was finally agreed upon and submitted to the States for their acceptance or rejection.²

¹ These are the words of William E. Gladstone, the great English statesman.

² Benjamin Franklin was a member of the convention. While the members were signing their names to the Constitution he pointed to a painting of the sun on the back of the president's chair and said, "I have often, during the course of the session, looked at that sun behind the president, without being able to tell whether it was rising or setting; but now at length I have the happiness to know it is a rising and not a setting sun."

When the Constitution was published it brought on a great deal of discussion. There were many able men opposed to some of its provisions, and for many months there was great excitement everywhere. It was agreed that when nine States had adopted the Constitution it should go into effect. When it became known that nine States had adopted it, there was great rejoicing.¹ It was not long before all the thirteen States had adopted it.

Adoption of
the Con-
stitution

Let us study some of the provisions of the Constitution. The government is divided into three departments, viz.: the *legislative department*, which makes the laws; the *executive department*, which carries out the laws; and the *judicial department*, which construes the meaning of the laws.

The legislative department is divided into a Senate and a House of Representatives. There are two senators from each State, but the representatives vary in number according to the population of the States, as shown by a census taken every ten years.

The legis-
lative de-
partment

The senators and representatives are chosen by popular vote in each State. They meet every year, on the first Monday in December, in the Capitol, Washington, D. C., for the purpose of making laws for the government of the nation. When they meet we say that Congress is in session.

Before any measure can become a law it requires the consent of both the Senate and the House of Representatives and the approval of the President of the United States. In case the President refuses his consent, which is called a veto,

¹ The States adopted the Constitution in the following order, viz.: Delaware, Pennsylvania, New Jersey, Georgia, Connecticut, Massachusetts, Maryland, South Carolina, New Hampshire, Virginia, New York, North Carolina, Rhode Island.

it takes the consent of two-thirds of both houses to make the measure a law.

Congress has certain powers given to it by the Constitution. Some of these are to levy and collect taxes, borrow money, coin money, establish post offices, declare war, raise and support armies, and provide for a navy. There are also powers that are denied to Congress, such as levying a tax on exports, granting titles of nobility, and such powers as the States reserve for themselves. There are also powers that are denied the States, such as making treaties, collecting customs, coining money, engaging in war, etc. All these powers, and the way our laws are made, one can read for himself in the Constitution.

The executive authority of the government is vested in a President of the United States of America. His term of office continues for four years. He must be a natural-born citizen of the United States, and at least thirty-five years of age. In case he dies, or is removed from office, or becomes unable to perform his duties, the Vice-President takes his place until the next election. It is the duty of the President to see that all the laws of Congress are duly and faithfully carried out.

The President is the Commander-in-Chief of the army and navy of the United States; he has the power, with the consent of the Senate, to make treaties, to appoint ambassadors and ministers to foreign courts, to appoint judges of the national courts, and many other officers of the United States.

The President lives at the capital, in a splendid mansion provided by the government, which for many years has been known as the White House. Some of the greatest men in the country have held the office. In a government like ours, where all men are equal in the sight of the law, the high office

of President is in reach of every citizen, no matter how humbly born, provided he is able and worthy.

The last department is the judicial department, or the courts, which have the power of construing the meaning of the laws and applying them to special cases.



THE WHITE HOUSE, THE HOME OF THE PRESIDENT OF THE UNITED STATES, AS IT APPEARS AT THE PRESENT DAY

The highest court is the Supreme Court, of which the judges are appointed for life by the President. Before them come cases which have been tried in the lower courts, and which for various reasons are carried **The courts** up to them for review. There are also lower courts established from time to time by Congress, to decide cases in which the national law has been violated.

As the years have gone by, the Constitution has been changed or added to by amendments. In the main, however, the great document still stands as our fathers made it.

3. PROBLEMS BEFORE THE NEW GOVERNMENT

The discussion over the Constitution divided the people into two great parties. One party believed in giving much power to Congress to make a strong central government.



WASHINGTON TAKES THE OATH OF OFFICE IN NEW YORK CITY, APRIL 30, 1789

In order to do this, that party insisted that the Constitution should be construed very liberally. This party was called the Federalist party. Its great leader was Alexander Hamilton of New York.

Federalist and Anti-Federalist parties The other party believed that Congress should be confined very closely to the powers mentioned in the Constitution, and that the rights of the States and the strength of the State governments should be carefully preserved. In order to do this the Constitution

should be construed very strictly. This party was at first known as the Anti-Federalist party, and afterwards as the Republican party. Its great leader was Thomas Jefferson of Virginia.

One party considered the government strong in itself; the other party considered it strong only in the powers given to it by the States. Both parties believed in a government able to take care of itself at home and abroad, with ample powers to make itself respected and feared. The difference between them was in construing the meaning of the Constitution. Both parties were glad to honor the great George Washington by making him the first President of the United States.

New York was then the capital of the country. There, on **April 30th, 1789**, Washington took the oath of office, standing on a balcony in front of Federal Hall, where Congress met, while a great crowd of happy people shouted, bells rang, and cannon boomed.¹ Thus the government of the United States began.

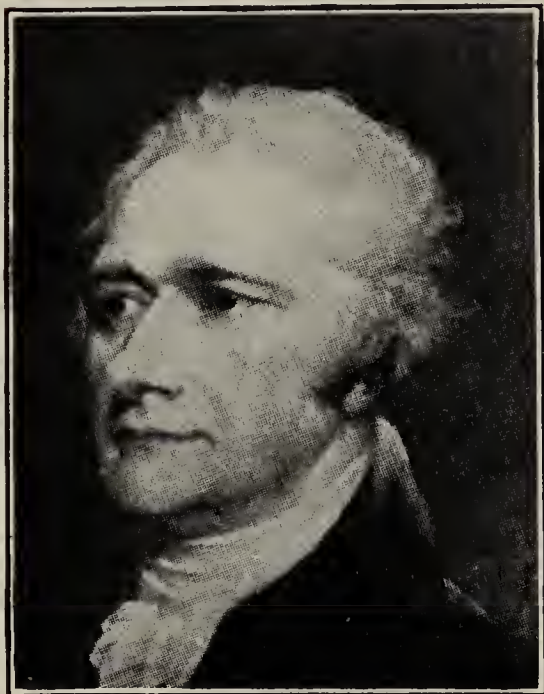
The first question to confront the new government was the money question. The country was heavily in debt from the war. There was an immense foreign debt, caused by loans that had been made with European countries; there

¹ Washington was now fifty-seven years old, still in the prime of his life. He was tall, muscular, and hardened by his years of life as a soldier. He was a large man in every way. He wore a number thirteen boot, had big hands, and weighed two hundred pounds. When he stood erect he loomed well above his fellows. He was an excellent shot, a skillful swordsman, and a fine rider. In his younger days he could cover twenty-two feet in a running jump.

Washington had become a rich man. He owned thousands of acres in Virginia, and large tracts of land along the Ohio. At one time his estate was valued at a half million dollars, consisting of lands, houses, slaves, crops, etc. However, he was often pressed for ready cash, and, it is said, had to borrow money to get to New York when he was inaugurated.

was a large debt owed by the country to its own citizens; and there were heavy debts owed by the separate States. Thus there were three kinds of debts which had to be provided for.

Alexander Hamilton, whom Washington had made Secretary of the Treasury, rose equal to the occasion. He was a



ALEXANDER HAMILTON

financial genius. Alexander Daniel Webster said Hamilton of him, "He smote the rock of national resources and a copious stream of wealth poured forth. He touched the dead corpse of public credit and it sprang upon its feet." He was at this time but thirty-two years of age, but he was one of the leading men of the nation.

Hamilton proposed that Congress should lay a duty on all foreign goods coming into the country, and with the money thus raised should pay the foreign loan and also the money borrowed from our own citizens. He made also the startling proposition that Congress should assume all the State debts, since they were incurred for the common good of all. In this way Congress would be responsible for all the debts of the country, whether made by the general government during the war or by the States themselves.

To the last proposition there was much opposition, especially from the Southern States, which feared the influence upon the government of the rich capitalists and merchants of the North. In this opposition they were led by Thomas

Hamilton's
financial
scheme

Jefferson, who said that the Constitution gave Congress no power to assume the debts of the States. If the Constitution were stretched to assume this power, it might be stretched some other way, and there was no telling where the assumption of power would end.¹

While this discussion was going on, the question of locating the seat of government was also in dispute. The people of the North wanted it somewhere near them, on the Delaware River. The people of the South wanted it near them, on the Potomac River. Accordingly, a compromise was made by both sides. The Southern statesmen agreed to have the government assume the debts of the States, and the Northern statesmen agreed that the capital should be on the Potomac River. By this compromise the government assumed the debts of the States, and the national capital was given its present location.

The Revolution in America was followed in a few years by a Revolution in France. The common people of that country, outraged and exhausted by the autocratic rule of their kings, burdened with taxes and ignored by their tyrannic rulers, rose in revolt and proclaimed France a republic. Riotous mobs in Paris destroyed an ancient prison, called the Bastille, in which the king had confined many of his subjects. To such fury did the revolu-

¹ The two great statesmen of that day were undoubtedly Hamilton, the Secretary of the Treasury, and Jefferson, the Secretary of State, in the cabinet of President Washington. They were soon political enemies, unable to agree, since they held such different views of the nature of the government. Hamilton and Jefferson had many a stormy debate around the table of the President, Hamilton insisting that the general government be given much power in itself, and Jefferson protesting that the people should retain as much power in their own hands as possible. Both these great minds have impressed themselves indelibly upon the institutions of the country.

tion rise that the king, Louis XVI, was beheaded, many of the opponents of the republic were put to death by the guillotine, and a "Reign of Terror" existed in France.

Other nations became alarmed at the republican spirit of France and banded together to restore the French monarchy. War was declared between France and the other nations of Europe, including England.

In America there was a strong sentiment in favor of the revolutionists in their struggle for liberty, though every one deplored the lawlessness and excesses of the French mobs. In this situation the new French Republic sent its first minister to the United States. His name was Edmond Charles Genet, and he was called "Citizen," because France had abolished all titles.

Citizen Genet landed in Charleston in **April, 1793**, and made an overland journey to Philadelphia. Everywhere he was received with enthusiasm, and greeted with applause. Mass meetings, banquets, and parades attended his progress northward, until the young Frenchman, for he was only twenty-eight years old, thought that America would surely declare war against the enemies of France.

However, when he reached Philadelphia, which had become the seat of government, Washington received him coldly. The President had already issued a proclamation of neutrality, declaring that the United States should not take any part in European quarrels.

American neutrality in European quarrels In spite of the fact that France had been our ally in our own war with England, it would have been suicidal for us to come to her aid at this time. On our northern border the British held a long line of fur posts extending along the Great Lakes and westward. On the south and southwest the Spaniards were

ready to incite the Indians to hostility and invasion. To have joined France in her war would have been to loose the horrors of Indian warfare, to imperil our interests in the trading posts of the North, and to allow Spain to invade our helpless pioneer settlements in the Southwest. Neutrality was therefore a necessity, as well as a policy of prudence and wisdom.

Genet was not dismayed by the proclamation of neutrality. He at once began to fit out privateers to prey on the commerce



MOUNT VERNON, ON THE POTOMAC RIVER, THE HOME OF GEORGE WASHINGTON

of England, and to stir up the people to opposition to the government. He became so offensive that Washington requested his recall, and soon after he left this country. The proclamation of Washington was accepted by the people as wise and prudent and became the acknowledged policy of our government.

Washington was President for two terms, or eight years. He could have been elected for a third term, but he firmly refused, saying that he was tired of the cares of public life, and that two terms were enough for one man. He was now

getting old, and was anxious to retire from his long public service as soldier and statesman.

After his second term of office expired he returned to his home at Mount Vernon, on the Potomac River, and passed his remaining years in the peace and quiet of a country life. Here, **December 14, 1799**, he died, in his sixty-eighth year. His grave is at Mount Vernon, where thousands of visitors go every year to pay their tribute of love and veneration to this greatest of all our citizens.

Old age and
death of
Washington

4. TROUBLE WITH FRANCE

John Adams was the second President of the United States. He was in office for only one term of four years. Nearly all that time was occupied in a trouble that threatened war with France.

England and France were still at war. The French thought that the United States should aid them in this war, since they had aided the United States in the Revolution. Washington, however, had been too wise to allow the young nation to become entangled in this way, and France was still nursing its wrath.

In addition to this, the United States had a dispute with England, regarding the terms of the treaty of peace. The British had not abandoned all the frontier forts, although they had agreed to do so. The United States had not paid certain debts due to British sympathizers in America during the war. Besides this, the British ships began to seize American vessels on the way to France in order to prevent the selling of their cargoes in French ports.

Trouble with
England

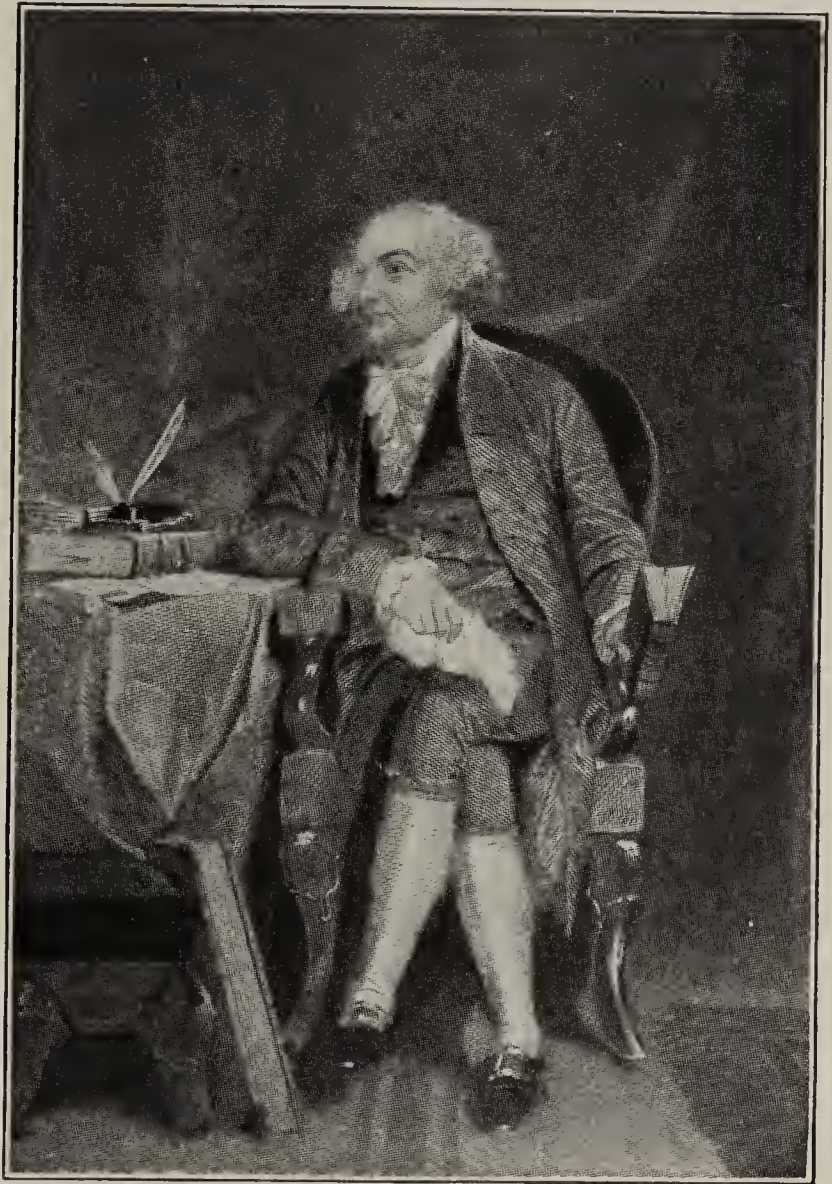
To prevent a war with Great Britain, Washington, while

he was President, had sent John Jay to England, who had made a treaty that was not very satisfactory to the people of America, 1794. John Jay's
treaty

By the terms of this treaty Great Britain agreed to surrender the Northwestern forts by June 1, 1796, and to pay all damages to our merchant vessels.

The United States agreed to pay all debts due to British subjects when the Revolution began. But nothing was said in the treaty about our rights as neutrals, or about the right to search American vessels and seize American sailors.

The treaty was received with a storm of protest in America. John Jay was burned in effigy, and Alexander Hamilton was stoned in New



JOHN ADAMS

York while speaking in behalf of the treaty. The British flag was torn down in Charleston, and a public demonstration was made before the house of the British consul. However, Washington knew that it was this treaty or another war, and

that it was the best we could do. We were in no position to dictate terms.

France, however, was provoked that we had made the treaty at all. She wanted us to go to war with her enemy, and, out of spite, began to annoy our commerce in the same way that England was doing. Our ships were seized at sea, the vessels and cargoes were sold in French ports, and the ministers we sent to France to protest against this action were insulted.

This was the condition of affairs when Adams became President. It looked very much as if we should have war with our old ally, the French. The President did not desire this, and sent commissioners to France to treat with the French government. The French government, then known as the Directory, would not receive the commissioners.

Three French persons called on the commissioners and told them that peace could be secured if they would pay a large sum of money to the directors themselves; in other words, bribe them. To this the commissioners returned an indignant and positive refusal. Charles C. Pinckney, one of the commissioners, uttered the ringing words; "Millions for defense; but not one cent for tribute."

When President Adams reported the matter to Congress, he did not give the names of the three persons, but called them X. Y. Z. From this circumstance, it was known as the "X. Y. Z. Affair."

The country now prepared for war. Washington was placed at the head of the army, and the commanders of our naval craft ordered to seize French vessels wherever they found them. War was not

Averting war

actually declared, but we were on the verge of it. Napoleon Bonaparte, now at the head of the French Republic, saw that we were going to defend our rights, and accordingly in 1800 made a treaty that gave protection to our commerce and restored the old friendship between France and America. Shortly afterward peace was declared between France and England and the world ceased from warfare for a while.

During the controversy with France, several newspapers in America were edited by foreigners, who abused the American government. To put a stop to this, Congress passed laws known as the Alien and Sedition laws. The Alien law gave the President the right to send out of the country any foreigner whose presence he thought was dangerous to our government. The Sedition law gave him the right to punish anybody who was abusing the government and stirring up the people against the authorities.

These laws were very unpopular, however, because the people thought they took away their liberty of speech. The legislatures of Kentucky and Virginia passed resolutions declaring the laws were contrary to the Constitution, and that the States had a right to refuse to obey them. These laws were never enforced.

At the close of Adams's term of office, in 1800, the seat of government was moved from Philadelphia to Washington. Washington himself had selected the site on the Potomac River. A district ten miles square was ceded by Maryland to the general government, to be known as the District of Columbia. It is in this district that the capital city, named for George Washington, is situated.

At the time the government was moved there, it was almost a wilderness. There was but one hotel. The house of the

President was in an open field. This, with a few scattered houses along the unpaved streets, made up the town. It has since become one of the most beautiful cities in the world.

5. THE INFLUENCE OF THOMAS JEFFERSON

In 1801 Thomas Jefferson became the third President of the United States.

He had been a leading man in Congress during the Revolution. When he was thirty-three years old he wrote the Declaration of Independence, all except a few words that were put in by Adams and Franklin. He took no part in the debates on the Declaration, which lasted for three days.

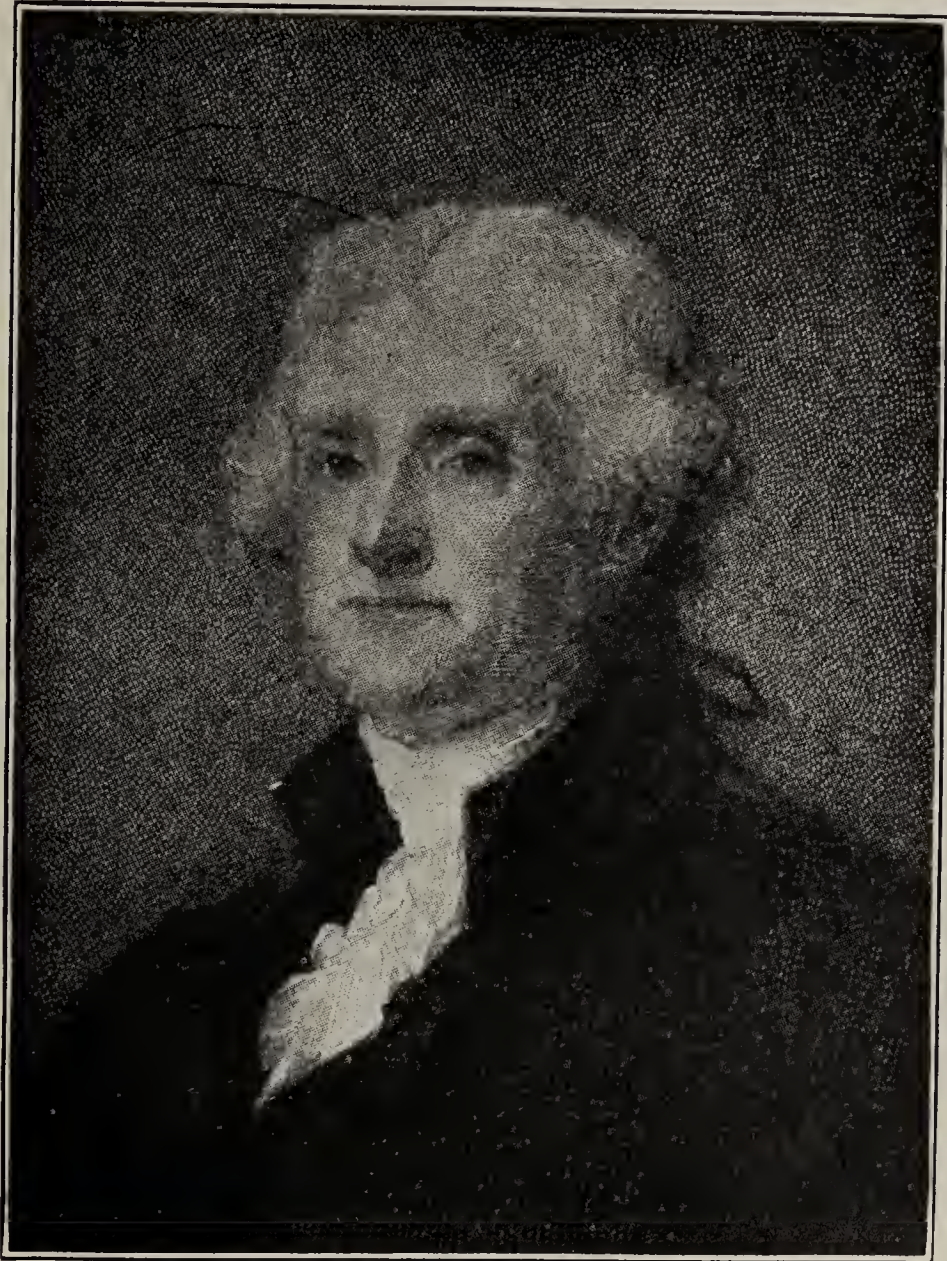
When Jefferson left the Continental Congress he was elected a member of the legislature of Virginia. He thought that certain reforms were badly needed. Up to this time the law of Virginia allowed a man to will his real estate to his descendants with conditions attached to it, such as not to divide the land up or even to sell it except in the way directed in the will. Also there was a law directing that if a man died without leaving a will, all his land went to his oldest son. Jefferson had these laws repealed, so that no man could leave his real estate entailed with conditions, and if he died without a will all his children shared alike.

Up to this time the Episcopal Church was the established church in Virginia, and every one was taxed to support it, whether he belonged to it or not. Jefferson introduced a bill in the legislature securing to every one freedom to worship as he chose, as well as exemption from punishment for religious belief, and from taxation for the support of any church. Jefferson is called, "the author of religious liberty in Virginia."

Reforms in
the laws of
inheritance

Author of
religious
liberty in
Virginia

He was also the founder of the great University of Virginia, and planned a scheme for public education at the



THOMAS JEFFERSON

expense of the State, from the lowest grades through the University.

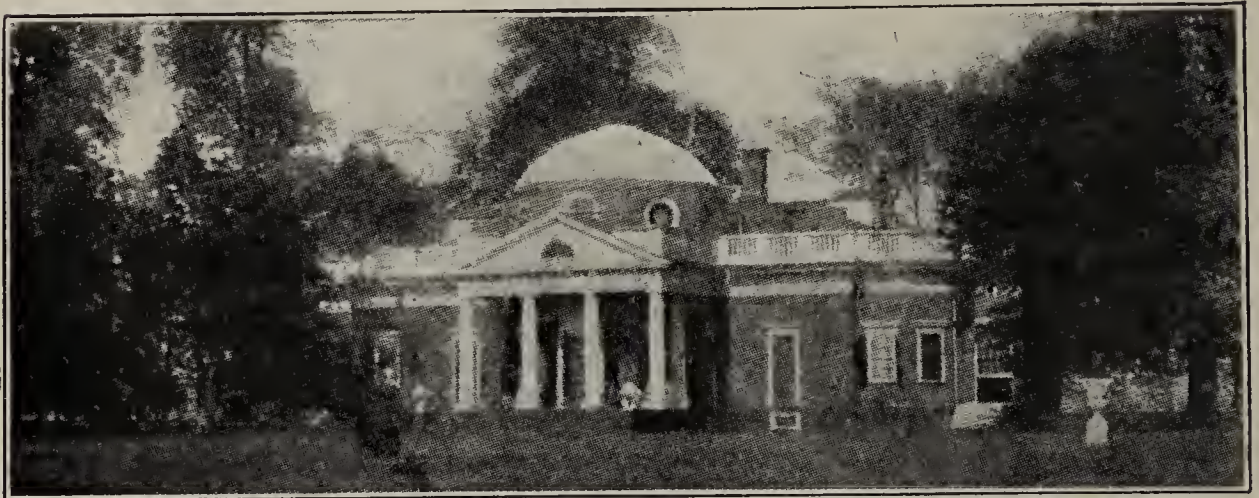
It has been said that Jefferson never made a speech or fought a battle. He became great and famous through his writings and wise opinions. He was a deep thinker on all great questions regarding government. He introduced the

custom of having the President send a written message to Congress instead of making a speech.

He believed very firmly in the rights of the States to decide certain questions for themselves. He was the founder of the

Author of States' Rights doctrine States' Rights doctrine, which held Congress to a strict construction of the Constitution. By this doctrine all powers not expressly given to Congress by the Constitution are to be closely construed as belonging to the States themselves.

Jefferson has had a great influence on the institutions and history of our country. He was the founder and the first



MONTICELLO, THE HOME OF THOMAS JEFFERSON

leader of the Anti-Federalist party, which became known as the Republican party, and which today is known as the Democratic party. His principles are often referred to as the Jeffersonian principles.

Life at Monticello Jefferson lived on a large estate in Virginia. He built himself a beautiful home near Charlottesville, called "Monticello," where he entertained with generous hospitality. As many as fifty people were sometimes guests in his house. He was known as "the Sage of Monticello."

He was a rare scholar, and seemed to know everything. He always rose early, and sometimes boasted that the sun had not caught him in bed for fifty years. He was an excellent horseman, a dead shot with a rifle, and a good violinist. His manners were friendly; his dress plain and simple.

His habits

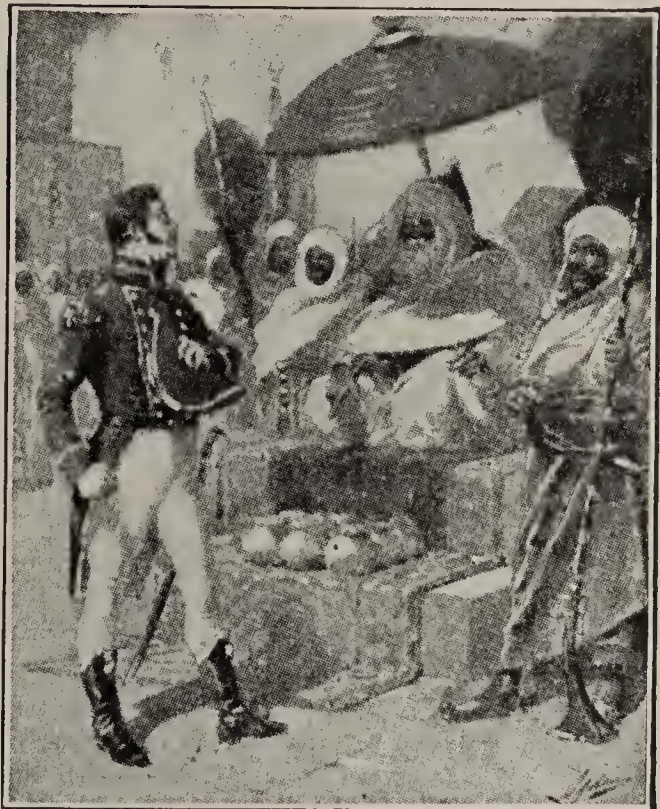
As President he did not stand aloof from the people, but shook hands with all who came. He did not have at the White House the splendid balls and parties that the former Presidents had encouraged, but lived simply and quietly, greatly beloved and honored by all the people.

Along the northern coast of Africa lay the Barbary States. Their ships were

pirate vessels that infested the Mediterranean Sea and compelled all passing craft to pay tribute. To satisfy these pirates, and in fear of

them, many nations of Europe had paid large sums of money to the Barbary States, on the condition that the pirates would let their vessels alone. The United States had also been paying this tribute for twenty years.

The rulers of the Barbary States became very insolent, and sometimes added to the tribute money when it was late in coming, or wanted it paid in naval stores which they



CAPTAIN BAINBRIDGE RESENTS THE INSULT
OF THE DEY OF ALGIERS

greatly undervalued. When Captain Bainbridge in 1800 carried the tribute money from the United States to Algiers,



STEPHEN DECATUR

he was Tribute to made to the pirates pull down the flag of his ship and run up that of Algiers. This was very insulting, and he said, "I do this because there is no choice, but the next time I hope to deliver the tribute from the mouth of a cannon."

The next year the ruler of Tripoli, one of War with the Barbary States, was incensed because he thought the tribute was not large enough. He de-

clared war upon the United States. This was the very thing that our young navy wanted, for it was time to teach these insolent pirates a good lesson.

Exploits of the *Constellation* The following year an American vessel, the *Constellation*, engaged nine Tripolitan gunboats in battle. Five of these were driven ashore, and the rest saved themselves by running under cover of the forts in a

near-by harbor. By this time the pirates were beginning to have respect for the young navy of the United States.

Shortly after this, one of the American frigates, the *Philadelphia*, ran aground off Tripoli. It was captured, and all the men thrown into prison. An American officer, Lieutenant Stephen Decatur, was sent to seize the ship and burn it. It was a cold night, a heavy gale was blowing, and Decatur with several men in a small ship started on his mission. He silently floated near the stranded ship, of which the enemy had possession. Not knowing who he was, the Tripolitans warned him away. But he came alongside, grappled the sides of the ship, and called out, "Board her!"

The Americans climbed on the *Philadelphia* and caught the Tripolitans unawares. With swords and pistols they made short work of those who did not have time to jump overboard. The *Philadelphia* was then set on fire, and Decatur and his men escaped safely to their own vessel, without the loss of a single man.

This was enough for the Tripolitans. Peace was made, all prisoners were ransomed, and the payment of the tribute money to the pirates ceased. All Europe rang with praise of the bravery and spirit of our naval officers and men. The value and necessity of warships became evident, and the pride of the people in their own resources and power was greatly increased.

6. THE PURCHASE OF LOUISIANA

At the end of the French and Indian War all the territory west of the Mississippi belonged to Spain. Spain also held the city of New Orleans and the mouth of the Mississippi River. Naturally the United States was anxious to add all

this territory to its own domain, as well as to secure an outlet through the Mississippi to the Gulf.

At that time New Orleans was a small town of eight or ten thousand people, living mainly in wooden houses. St. Louis was a fur trading post of not more than a thousand people, most of whom were boatmen or traders with the Indian tribes of the West. There were a few scattered villages along the river, but the main portion of the territory was occupied by Indians. So far as the interior of the territory itself was concerned, very little was known about it.

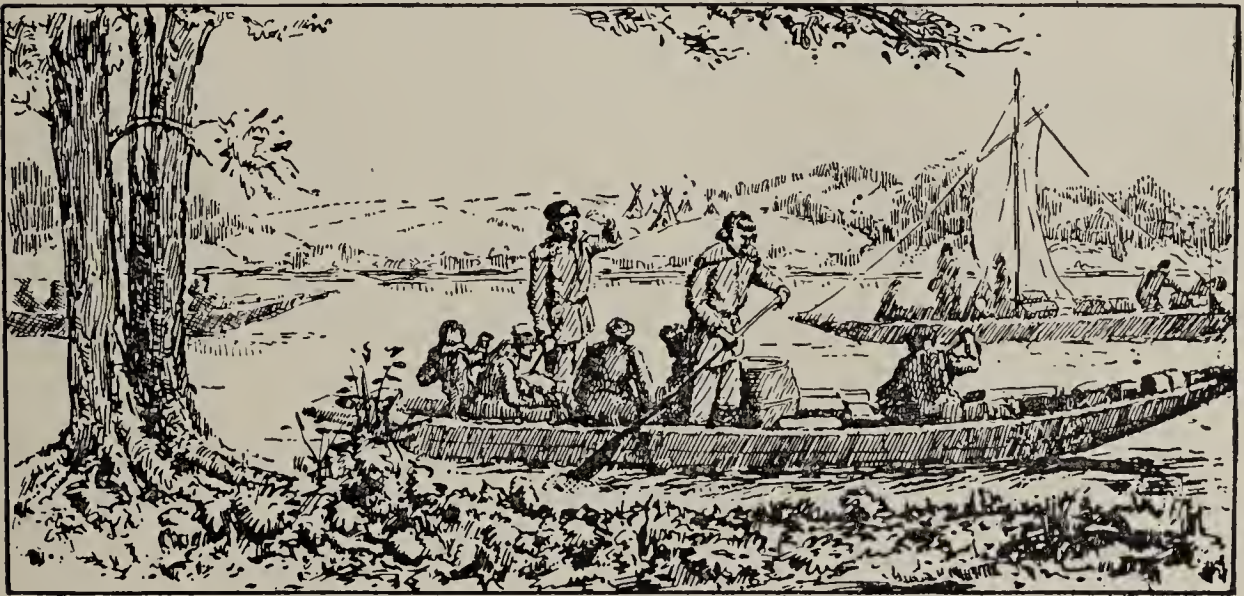
Napoleon Bonaparte, now become First Consul of France, cast covetous eyes upon this vast domain in America, and forced Spain to cede all the Louisiana territory to France. Just about that time the Spanish officer in New Orleans closed the mouth of the Mississippi River to American vessels, thereby depriving all the Western settlers of any means of reaching a market for their goods. This action aroused the West with indignation and resentment. There was nothing to do but to buy New Orleans from France in order to hold an open port at the mouth of the Mississippi.

Jefferson sent James Monroe to join the American minister in Paris and offer to buy the island of New Orleans. Napoleon was expecting another war with England. He needed money badly, and saw that the French could hardly hold any territory in America against so powerful an enemy as England. Therefore he offered to sell not only New Orleans but all the territory known as Louisiana, to the United States for fifteen million dollars. A treaty was duly made and ratified by the Senate in 1803, and the formal transfer of the territory was made in New Orleans in December of that year.

Louisiana
Purchase,
1803

The United States came into possession of all the territory between the Mississippi River and the Rocky Mountains. This purchase doubled the territory of the United States, and removed a dangerous rival from our western borders. It was the most important act of Jefferson's administration.

Jefferson's enemies taunted him by saying that the Constitution gave him no power to make the purchase, and that he was abandoning his own principles in doing so. To this he replied that the opportunity to make such a great bargain



LEWIS AND CLARK ASCEND THE MISSOURI

was too golden to let slip, and that there could not possibly be any opposition to it.

In order to explore the new territory, Jefferson sent two young men from Virginia, Lewis and Clark,¹ with directions to go up the Missouri River, and across the Rocky Mountains, to the Pacific Ocean. The story of their adventures reads like a romance.

They were gone nearly two years and a half, making maps of the regions that they explored, telling the Indians

¹ William, youngest brother of George Rogers Clark.

of the change of ownership of the lands, and learning many facts about the great West. They suffered much hardship at times, but accomplished their mission, and brought back a full report of their adventures to the President, who had long since given them up as lost or dead.

Lewis and
Clark explore
Louisiana

Thus we see our country expanding in territory and power. Settlers and explorers in the North had spread out so fast that Vermont had grown into a State and been admitted to the Union in 1791. Daniel Boone had already led his pioneers across the mountains of North Carolina, and so rapidly had settlers built homes along the rivers that in 1792 Kentucky also became one of the States. In the same way Robertson and Sevier had followed the Tennessee and the Cumberland rivers and opened up the great State of Tennessee, which entered the Union in 1796.

New States
enter the
Union

Emigrants were also rapidly forming settlements along the Ohio River. In 1790 a village of log huts along the river was named Cincinnati. People came so fast that in a few years all the Northwest Territory was alive with hardy pioneers.

Westward
movement

A tragic incident of the times was the duel between Hamilton and Burr. Aaron Burr, a prominent politician of New York, had long been the political enemy of Hamilton. He discovered that Hamilton had defeated his nomination for the governorship of New York. With bitter feelings he challenged Hamilton to a duel. Hamilton did not have the courage to refuse.

In the gray dawn of a July day in 1804 the two men with their seconds met on the banks of the Hudson. Hamilton was nervous and undecided; Burr was cool and determined. The men were placed in position, and the signal to fire was given.

But one shot was heard, and Hamilton pitched forward on his face, shot through the body. As he fell, his pistol went off in the air, the ball passing over Burr's head. The next day Hamilton was dead, and the nation had lost one of its most brilliant men.

Burr later was detected in a conspiracy to set up a Western republic. He was hunted down and tried, but was acquitted for lack of evidence. He passed his last days in neglect and want.

7. THE RIGHT OF THE SEAS

England and France were engaged in war. Napoleon was the Emperor of the French, and by his skill as a general was about to overrun most of Europe. Both of these nations had annoyed the American merchant vessels for a long time. Napoleon declared that our vessels should not trade with England. If they attempted to do so they would be captured and destroyed.

England, on the other hand, declared that American vessels should not trade with the French. In addition to this, England declared that she had a right to stop our **Impressing** vessels on the high seas and examine the sailors **seamen** on board. If there were any English seamen among them, they were to be taken from our vessels by force and made to join the English navy. This was called "impressing" the seamen, by the rule of "once an Englishman always an Englishman."

This had been going on for some time. Many of our ships had been stopped by the British war vessels, and even native-born Americans had been taken from them, until we had lost several thousand sailors. This was humiliating to our pride and destructive to our commerce. We bore

it as long as we could, for we were not in condition to make war against England.

In 1807 an American frigate, the *Chesapeake*, was going down the Potomac for a cruise in the Mediterranean. The British frigate *Leopard* overhauled her, fired into her, and killed several men. A searching party was sent on board the *Chesapeake*, and four sailors were taken away, three of whom were Americans. This was more than the country could endure, and a cry of indignation burst forth from one end of the land to the other.

Congress made a law in 1807 that no American vessel should leave port to trade with foreign countries. This was called the Embargo Act, and was designed to cut off trade with England, thereby depriving her of the supplies she needed for the war with France. It hurt America as much as it did England. Ships and their cargoes lay rotting in the ports, seamen were thrown out of employment, mills were stopped, and farmers ceased to raise crops. There was no available market for cloth, tobacco, cotton, or anything else. Everything declined in price, and business was at a standstill.

It was soon evident that the Embargo could not last. The ship owners declared that they would rather lose a vessel or a few men every now and then, than to lose all their business. In 1809 the Embargo Act was repealed, having been in operation for fourteen months, and having cost the country many millions of dollars. In place of the Embargo, Congress passed the Non-Intercourse Act, which forbade American vessels from trading with either England or France as long as they were hostile to the United States.

At this juncture Jefferson's term expired, and James Madison

became the fourth President of the United States (1809).

Like Jefferson he was a man of peace, and was anxious to avoid trouble with any foreign nation.

The British minister at Washington assured Madison that the English government would protect all American vessels that would trade exclusively with England.

Madison quickly and gladly announced that the Non-Intercourse Act was suspended so far as England was concerned. Almost immediately the imprisoned fleet of merchant vessels spread their white sails for England.

Action of

England and

France

The British government, however, declared that their minister had promised too much, and that they would not agree to suspend the searching of American vessels. Whereupon Madison in deep chagrin withdrew his announcement.

Napoleon now promised the same thing for France, if our ships would not trade in English ports. Again we were deceived. As soon as our vessels reached French ports, they were seized and sold. Ten million dollars' worth of property fell into the hands of the French.

To make matters worse, it was found that a famous Indian chief, Tecumseh, and his brother, The Prophet, had organized the Indian tribes of the Northwest into a great confederacy for the purpose of killing all the whites or driving them out of the country. It was believed that England had secretly aided Tecumseh in the plot. Dreadful massacres occurred in many places. General William Henry Harrison, who later on was to become President of the United States, marched against the Indians. A battle was fought at Tippecanoe, **November 7, 1811**, in which the savages were defeated.

Battle of
Tippecanoe

All these things taken together irritated the Americans beyond endurance. England declared that she had a right

to search the American vessels and take from them all British sailors. The Americans refused to acknowledge this right. England persisted in stopping our ships and impressing seamen for her own service. This was the reason that a second war with England was declared by Congress in 1812.

Second war
with England
declared

8. THE WAR OF 1812 BEGUN

At the beginning of the War of 1812, the United States had eight millions of people; England had twenty millions.

The United States had a revenue of about ten million dollars a year; England had three hundred and fifty millions. The United States had sixteen war vessels; England had over eight hundred. The United States had six thousand seamen; England had one hundred and fifty thousand.

England and
America com-
pared

There was a great difference between our young nation and its powerful enemy, but we shall see that we gave a good account of ourselves.

The first movement in the war was to attack Canada. General William Hull, an old hero of the Revolutionary War, was governor of Michigan. He received orders to invade Canada from the west, and started on the way. Hearing that a force of British and a body of Indians were moving on Detroit, he quickly returned. In a short while the British and the Indians arrived and demanded the surrender of the fort, on pain of a general massacre in case of refusal.

The old general should have given battle and died in defense of the place if need be, but he was so alarmed for the safety of his men and for the women and children of the place, that without waiting to be attacked and without firing a gun, he surrendered his army and the

Surrender of
Detroit

fort (August 16, 1812). This was a bad beginning of the war, for it gave Detroit and all Michigan to the British. The people were indignant at the apparent cowardice of General Hull. He was court-martialed for his act and sentenced to be shot. President Madison, however, pardoned him on account of his past record in the Revolution.

The Americans had expected great things from their land forces, but all the attempts made against Canada ended most disastrously. They had not expected much from the little navy, but it was from our few battleships that the greatest glory was won.

Three days after the surrender of Detroit the American vessel *Constitution*, in command of Captain Isaac Hull, a nephew

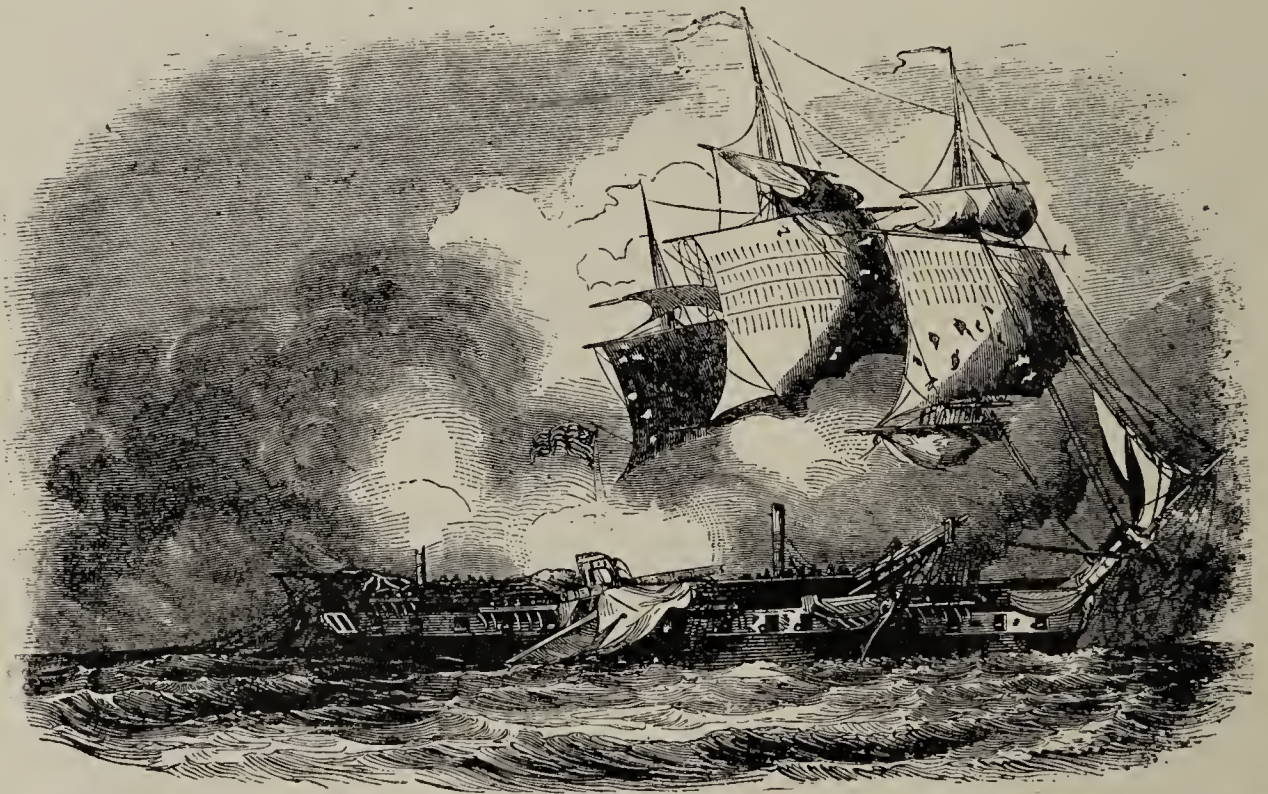


GENERAL HULL IN A PANIC OF FEAR SURRENDERS
DETROIT WITHOUT STRIKING A BLOW

of General William Hull, fell in with the British man-of-war *Guerrière* off the coast of Nova Scotia. The fight lasted only a half-hour, but at the end the British ship was a hopeless wreck. It was surrendered to Captain Hull, who blew it up with powder, and then sailed away to Boston with

his prisoners. This was a great victory. The *Constitution* was hardly damaged, and was henceforth known as *Old Ironsides*. Hull was voted a gold medal by Congress, and fifty thousand dollars was divided among the men as prize money.

In October the American sloop *Wasp* fell in with the British brig *Frolic* off the coast of North Carolina. The vessels lay alongside each other, both being fearfully damaged in the



THE "CONSTITUTION" ENGAGES THE "GUERRIÈRE"

fight. When they grappled and the Americans boarded the *Frolic*, they found only the man at the wheel and two officers. The others had run below for safety. There were hardly twenty men on board that were unhurt. This would also have been a great victory, if a British gunship had not suddenly appeared and captured the almost helpless American vessel.

One week later Stephen Decatur, in command of his frigate, the *United States*, met the English frigate *Macedonian*. After

a fight which lasted only a short time, the English commander surrendered, having lost ten times as many men as Decatur. When the English vessel was boarded, Decatur was surprised to find it commanded by one of his old friends. When he offered Decatur his sword, Decatur said, "I cannot take a sword from a man who has so bravely defended his ship."

The United States and the Macedonian

In **December**, the *Constitution*, now under command of Commodore Bainbridge, engaged the British ship *Java* off the coast of Brazil. This battle lasted several hours, and the American guns shot away every mast from the British ship, and opened her hull with round shot. The *Java* surrendered, with the loss of her captain and over a hundred men. The *Constitution* had lost only thirty-four.

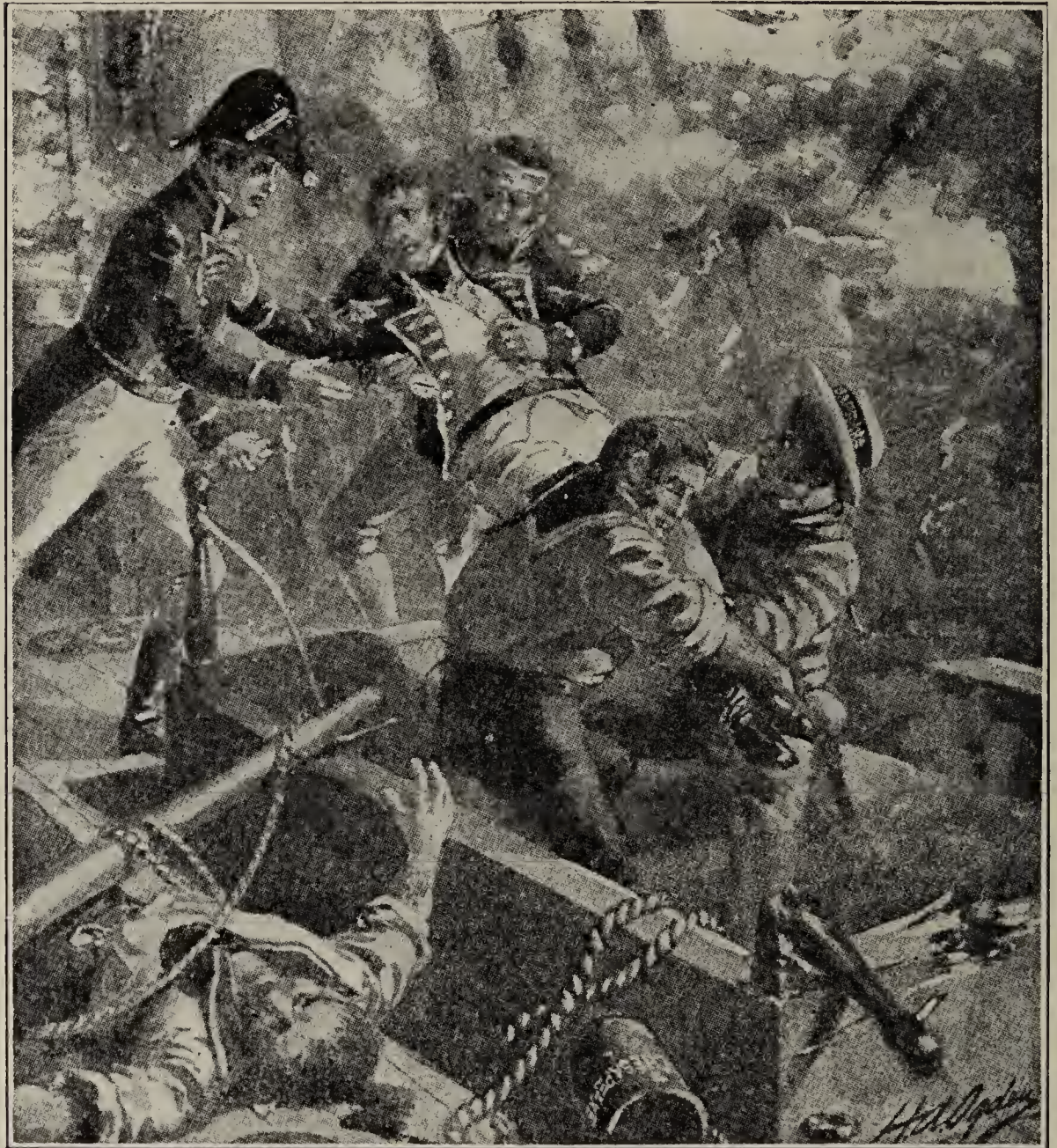
Other victories on the sea

The war thus carried on at sea was a series of almost unbroken victories. In six months the American navy had captured three British frigates, many smaller vessels, and any number of privateers. The British had captured but three small vessels. All the world was sounding the praises of the bravery, skill, and marksmanship of the American sailors in their contest with the mighty nation which up to this time had not met its match on the sea.

In **June, 1813**, occurred the battle between the American frigate *Chesapeake* and the British ship *Shannon*. The *Chesapeake* was in the harbor of Boston undergoing repairs, Captain Lawrence being in command. The British ship, cruising outside, challenged Lawrence to come out and fight. The *Chesapeake* was not quite ready, and the crew were not at all willing, but Lawrence put out to sea. The ships engaged, and in a few minutes the *Chesapeake* was completely disabled by the shots of the enemy.

The Chesapeake and the Shannon

Captain Lawrence was mortally wounded, and was carried below in a critical condition. He kept saying to those around



CAPTAIN LAWRENCE, AS HE WAS BORNE BELOW, CRIED OUT TO HIS MEN, "DON'T GIVE UP THE SHIP!"

him, "Don't give up the ship." The vessel became the prize of the *Shannon*, but the dying words of the brave commander have been the inspiration of every American sailor since that day.

September 10, 1813, a great victory was won on Lake Erie by Oliver H. Perry, who was not yet thirty years of age, and who up to this time had never commanded a ship in battle. He had been assigned to the command of the American fleet on Lake Erie.

When he reached the lake he found almost no fleet. He set to work with ship carpenters, and cutting down the trees near the shore he made five vessels and fitted them for service. To these were added four more vessels, and over all the commander's flag floated, bearing the words, "Don't give up the ship."

Soon the British fleet of six vessels was encountered, and a battle ensued. Perry's ship was literally cut to pieces, the decks ran with blood, and were covered with the dead and dying. In the midst of the battle, and amid a hail of bullets from the enemy, he lowered a boat, took his little brother, twelve years old, and ordered the crew to row him to another ship. It was a dangerous trip. The boat was the target of every gunner that could see it, but as by a miracle Perry reached the other ship in safety.

The end of the battle was a great victory for Perry and his homemade ships. The British surrendered to the young officer, who immediately wrote a dispatch to General Harrison as follows: "We have met the enemy, and they are ours; two ships, two brigs, one schooner, and one sloop." This victory gave the Americans command of Lake Erie, and the British withdrew from Detroit.

From now on to the end of the war many naval battles occurred from time to time. We need not mention them, nor were they very important. It is sufficient to say that our little navy, aided by privateers, did great damage to the British commerce. One privateer captured

twenty-seven merchant vessels in a month. Another captured twenty. In two years and a half over fourteen hundred English ships with cargoes valued at many millions of dollars were captured by these swift-sailing privateers. Of course the American foreign trade was practically destroyed, for the British ships watched our coasts like hawks, ready to swoop down on our merchant vessels if they ventured outside.

9. THE WAR OF 1812 CONCLUDED

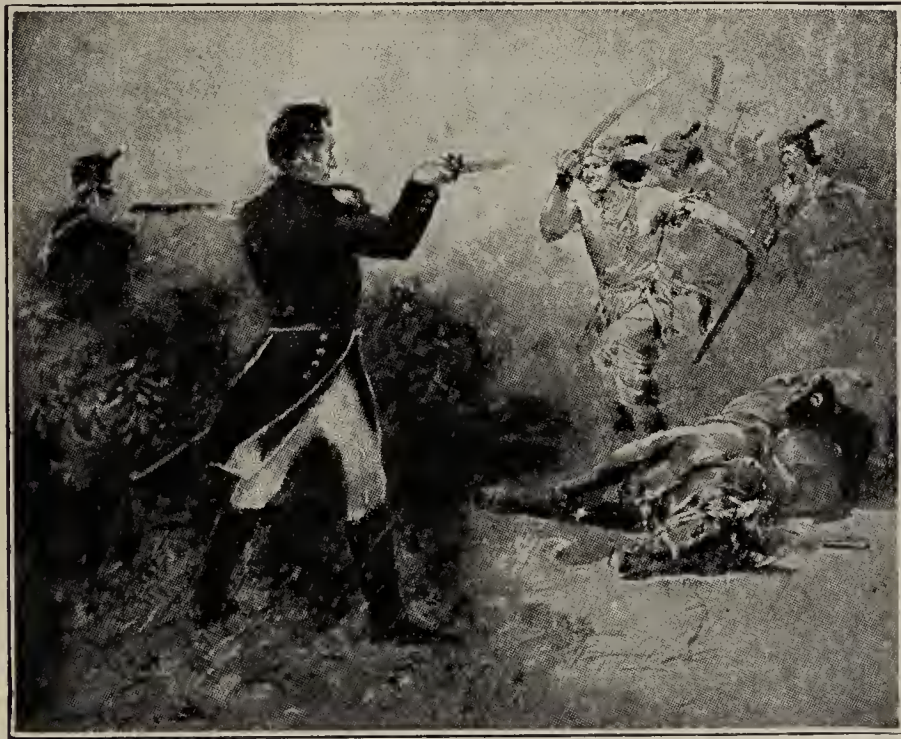
Let us now return to the operations on land. Perry's victory on Lake Erie had opened the way for another campaign against Canada. The British moved out of Detroit, pursued by General Harrison. They were overtaken at the Thames River. The British officer ran away, but old Tecumseh, the Indian chief, stood his



THE WAR OF 1812 ON THE CANADIAN FRONTIER

ground. He had said the night before the battle that he was going to die there. So it was, for he fell bleeding from many wounds, and his followers were badly beaten. The alliance of the Indians and the British was broken, and the Ohio territory was free from danger of invasion.

The inhabitants of Georgia and Alabama were threatened with Indian warfare. The Creeks had been aroused long before by the appeals of Tecumseh. They had descended on Fort Mims, not far from Mobile. One day while the sentinels were careless, the guns laid aside, and the gates open, the Creeks burst upon the fort and massacred three hundred men, women, and children.



TECUMSEH AT THE BATTLE OF THE THAMES

Retribution came swiftly. General Andrew Jackson, of Tennessee, with a body of regulars, pursued the savages ruthlessly. They made a last stand at the Horseshoe Bend on the Tallapoosa River. There a thousand warriors were gathered with their squaws and children. After the battle six hundred were dead, and the rest scattered in every direction. The power of the Indians in the South was broken forever.

In the summer of 1814 two battles were fought near Niagara Falls. One was at Chippewa and the other at Lundy's

Lane. In the first battle the British were repulsed; but in the next, which was fought for five hours in the darkness of night, the result was uncertain. Both sides claimed the victory.

The British in the meantime had blockaded all the American ports. Their huge navy ranged along the Atlantic coast, and frequently descended on some small village, which they plundered and destroyed. In August, 1814, a fleet sailed up the Chesapeake Bay and landed a body of troops a few miles from Washington. Scattering the Americans before them, the British marched upon the capital, then a town of eight thousand people, and entered it without opposition.

President Madison fled in haste, with all the members of his Cabinet. Mrs. Madison hastily collected some of the silver and a few valuable relics, including the Declaration of Independence and a fine portrait of Washington, and left just in time to escape capture. The dinner had been laid for the President and his friends, but the British enjoyed the feast that had been prepared for others.

The public buildings were at the mercy of the British. The Capitol, the President's House, the Treasury building, the navy yards, and many private buildings were burned. It was a piece of ruthless warfare which admitted of no defense. Even in England there was a general feeling that the destruction of non-warlike buildings was an outrage inconsistent with civilized warfare.

The same force started for Baltimore. Their ships came in sight of the city and began to bombard Fort McHenry, which was the main defense. All day long and late into the night the British poured shot against the walls of the fort, over which floated the American flag.

The people of Baltimore anxiously watched the result. When morning came and they saw the flag of their country still waving over the fort, their joy knew no bounds. The British had sailed down the Chesapeake, and Baltimore was safe.

It was on this occasion that Francis S. Key of Baltimore wrote the beautiful poem, "The Star-Spangled Banner." He was a prisoner on board a British ship, and all night long, by the flash of the guns, he had watched the waving of the American flag over the fort. In the morning the flag was still there. On the back of an old letter he wrote the beautiful lines of the poem, which the people from one end of the country to the other took up as a national song of rejoicing.

About the same time a British force moved down from Canada to attack New York. They came by way of Lake Champlain in a fleet of vessels. Commodore McDonough was in

command of a small American fleet, and gave battle to the invaders at Plattsburg Bay.

At the very first fire of the enemy a chicken coop was broken open on one of the American vessels, and out flew a young rooster, that perched upon one of the guns and began



JACKSON AT THE BATTLE OF NEW ORLEANS

to crow loudly. The soldiers cheered as the rooster crowed. They handled their guns so bravely that in a few hours all the British ships were in full flight for safety. **Invasion from Canada** This put an end to the invasion from Canada.

The last battle of the war was at New Orleans in **January, 1815**. The British General Packenham landed below the city with eight thousand men. **Battle of New Orleans** General Andrew Jackson defended it with half that number. He had built fortifications of earth, stones, cotton bales, logs, and of anything else he could get. The battle began at daybreak, and was over in two hours. It was a wonderful victory. The British had twenty-six hundred men killed and wounded. General Jackson lost only seventy-five men.

This battle was fought after peace had been declared between the two countries. A treaty between the United States and Great Britain had been signed at Ghent, in **Belgium, December 24, 1814**, which was to end the war. **Treaty of Ghent** There were no telegraph or cable lines in those days to bring the news, and it was many weeks before it reached America.

Strange to say, the treaty did not mention the question of searching American vessels, the very thing the war was fought about. It was not necessary, for it was understood that the American claims were allowed, and our merchant ships should no longer be molested.

The war had cost the country over a hundred million dollars. Thirty thousand lives had been lost, a great number of vessels captured by the enemy, and all commerce practically destroyed.

It had never been a popular war with the people of New England. Toward the end several of the New England States had called a convention at Hartford to protest against

some measures which they thought were in violation of the Constitution. It was understood that in case Congress did not attend to the complaint of these New England States and stop the war which was so ruinous to their commerce, measures would be taken by them looking to their withdrawal from the Union. Before the Convention could present its protest to Congress, however, word arrived that peace had been declared.

The country now gladly returned to peaceful pursuits. The world had learned that we could take care of ourselves on land and on sea, and that henceforth our merchant ships should be respected. The beginning of a long era of peace and prosperity found the nation ready and willing to build up the great country they had won through two dreadful wars.

During the War of 1812 an inspector of supplies for the army at Troy marked all the boxes with the name of the contractor, and then stamped U. S. on them, meaning, of course, United States. The inspector, however, was generally known in town as Uncle Sam, and some one said in a joke that he put his initials on the boxes to let the boys in the army know he was thinking about them. The joke spread outside of the town and into the army. The soldiers would say, "Here is something from Uncle Sam." After a while nearly everybody was saying it, and today we often hear the United States spoken of as Uncle Sam.

10. THE ERA OF GOOD FEELING

In 1817 James Monroe became the fifth President of the United States. He also was from Virginia, as were Washington, Jefferson, and Madison before him. That noble

State had furnished four out of five of the first Presidents. For that reason Virginia is often called "The Mother of Presidents."

Monroe had just graduated from William and Mary College when the Revolution began. He laid aside his books, joined the army as many other young men did, and fought bravely in several battles. He had been Minister to several countries abroad, Governor of Virginia, and Secretary of State while Madison was President.

Monroe was of a gentle disposition, industrious, generous, and amiable. It was a time of political peace. The eight years that he was President are known as the **The Era of Good Feeling** "Era of Good Feeling." When he was inaugurated he stood by the ruins of the Capitol, which the British had burned, and which the workmen were busily engaged in restoring, calling upon the people to rebuild their country upon the desolation of war, and foretelling a long season of prosperity.

There was now practically but one political party. The old Federalist party had almost ceased to exist. Every one belonged to the Republican party, which was the new name for the Anti-Federalist party.

When the time came for Monroe's election for a second term, he received the votes of all the delegates but one, and that delegate said he voted against him because he wanted Washington to be the only President who ever received a unanimous vote.

The people now turned their attention to internal improvements, and to the building up of manufactures. They had already learned this lesson well during the war, **Internal improvements** for trade being cut off from Europe, the people were obliged to depend upon themselves. Home production became a necessity. Mills, foundries, factories, and many

other kinds of industries sprang up all over the country. They prospered because they had no foreign competition.

Now that the war was over, the ports of the country were open to foreign trade. Ships from England began to arrive, fleet after fleet, laden with English goods. In a **Foreign** few years the imports had increased tenfold. **competition** English labor was skilled, and English goods were well made and cheap. The English merchants threatened to undersell the American merchants on American soil. There was no considerable duty on these imported goods, and England was able to lay them down here cheaper than we could make goods like them. In this predicament the American manufacturers began to see the millions of dollars they had invested in mills and factories endangered by foreign competition.

To prevent this disaster the manufacturers appealed to Congress to increase the duties¹ on certain foreign goods, so that they could not be sold in America at a less price than the American manufacturers could afford to make the same kind and quality of goods. In other words, the manufacturers wanted protection.

Up to this time the duty on foreign goods had been chiefly to raise a revenue to pay the expenses of government. This was called a tariff for revenue only. Now when **Desire for** this tariff was increased on certain articles to **protection** prevent them from being sold for less than the same kind of articles that were manufactured at home could be profitably sold, it was called a tariff for protection, or a protective tariff.

¹It is well to understand that when a foreign-made article is brought into this country the importer pays a charge upon it. This is called the duty and is added to the first price of the article to be paid by the purchaser. The home manufacturer pays no duty, hence he can get more profit on his product than the man who imports goods from abroad. The duty thus protects the home manufacturer by increasing the cost of foreign goods.

Congress passed a Protective Tariff Act in 1816. It imposed a high duty on foreign cotton and woollen goods, to encourage home mills. In the same way were taxed other foreign goods which came into competition with home productions. The principle of tariff for protection and the question of what things should be protected and how far, have ever since been a cause of dispute and difference among the people. Political parties have been formed, sections have been divided, and statesmen have contended over the tariff.

The Protec-
tive Tariff
of 1816

As a general thing, we may say that those portions of our country where manufacturing is the main industry of the people, and where protection for articles to be sold is most needed, have strongly favored a high tariff.

Those portions of our country that are agricultural and where manufactured articles of all sorts have to be bought have wanted a low tariff.

At the time that the protective tariff was passed, all sections of the country agreed that it was a wise measure. The agricultural States of the South wanted good prices for cotton goods; the Western States wanted protection for hemp, flax, and their other products; the manufacturers of New England wanted their mills to flourish. So for a time everybody was content, and the era of good feeling was undisturbed.

11. THE MISSOURI COMPROMISE

Let us take a look at the condition of the country at this time. You will remember that during the Revolution there were only thirteen States. Shortly after the war ended, Vermont, Kentucky, and Tennessee were admitted to the Union. Then a great tide of immigration set in westward, and the Ohio River was full of boats carrying

Ohio admitted

people into the Northwest Territory. So rapidly was the country settled, that in 1803 Ohio was admitted as a State. Thus at the beginning of the century the thirteen States had grown to seventeen.

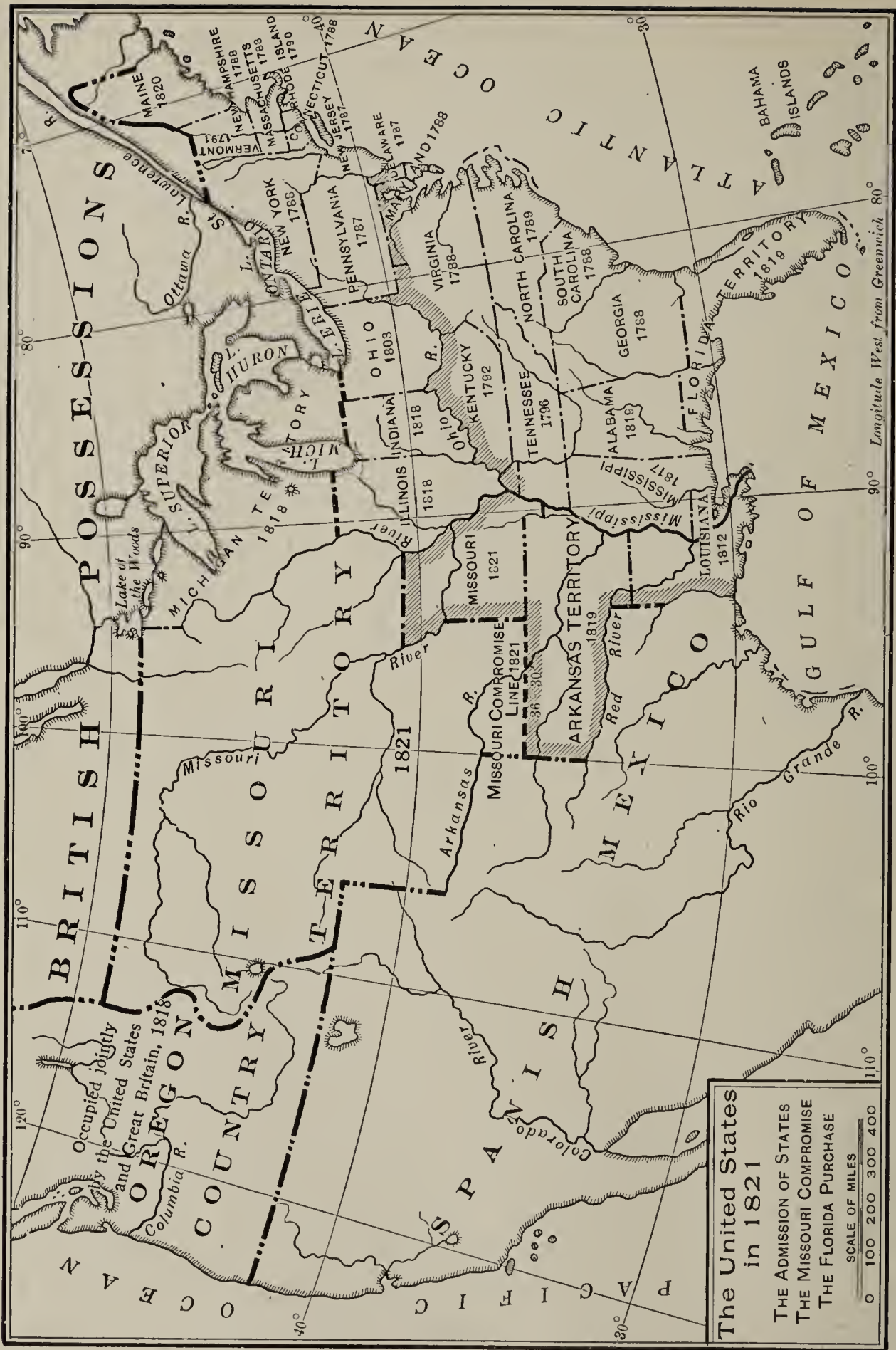
Nine years passed before another State came in. The southern part of the great territory of Louisiana, which Jefferson had bought from France, applied for admission in 1812. It was admitted under the name of Louisiana, making eighteen States in the Union during the War of 1812.

The Northwest Territory kept filling up, and the people kept going westward. Indiana was admitted in 1816. The Southwest was also developing, and Mississippi became a State in 1817. Then Illinois was admitted in 1818, and Alabama in 1819.

We see, therefore, that in 1819, there were twenty-two States. All the territory east of the Mississippi, except the present States of Michigan, Wisconsin, Florida, and Maine, had been organized, and one State beyond the Mississippi had been admitted.

Not only were new States entering the Union, but new territory was being acquired. Florida, which by the Treaty of Paris was still a Spanish possession, was a source of annoyance. The government was inefficient and the territory became a resort of pirates and robbers, and the retreat of runaway slaves from Georgia and Alabama. Even the Seminole Indians in Florida could not be kept down, but sallied forth from the swamps and forests, attacked farms and villages, and destroyed much property in Georgia.

This was very irritating, and General Andrew Jackson was sent to put an end to all these outrages. This he proceeded to do in his vigorous way. Spain now wisely agreed to sell the



The United States in 1821
 THE ADMISSION OF STATES
 THE MISSOURI COMPROMISE
 THE FLORIDA PURCHASE
 SCALE OF MILES
 0 100 200 300 400

territory of Florida to the United States for the sum of five million dollars (1819). In this way another great territory was added to the domain of the United States.

The purchase
of Florida

So far all the States had been admitted very peaceably to the Union. Some had come in as slaveholding States, and some as Free States. There were many people in the North and some in the South who thought that slavery was a great evil, and that slaveholding ought to be abolished, or, at least, restrained. It had been forbidden by the Constitution as well as by special law to import slaves after the year 1808. By the Ordinance of 1787 it had been determined that there should be no Slave States in the Northwest Territory.

Slaveholding

All the States from Pennsylvania north had freed their slaves before 1820, and the slaveholding States were now in the South, where cotton was grown in great quantities and slaveholding was profitable.

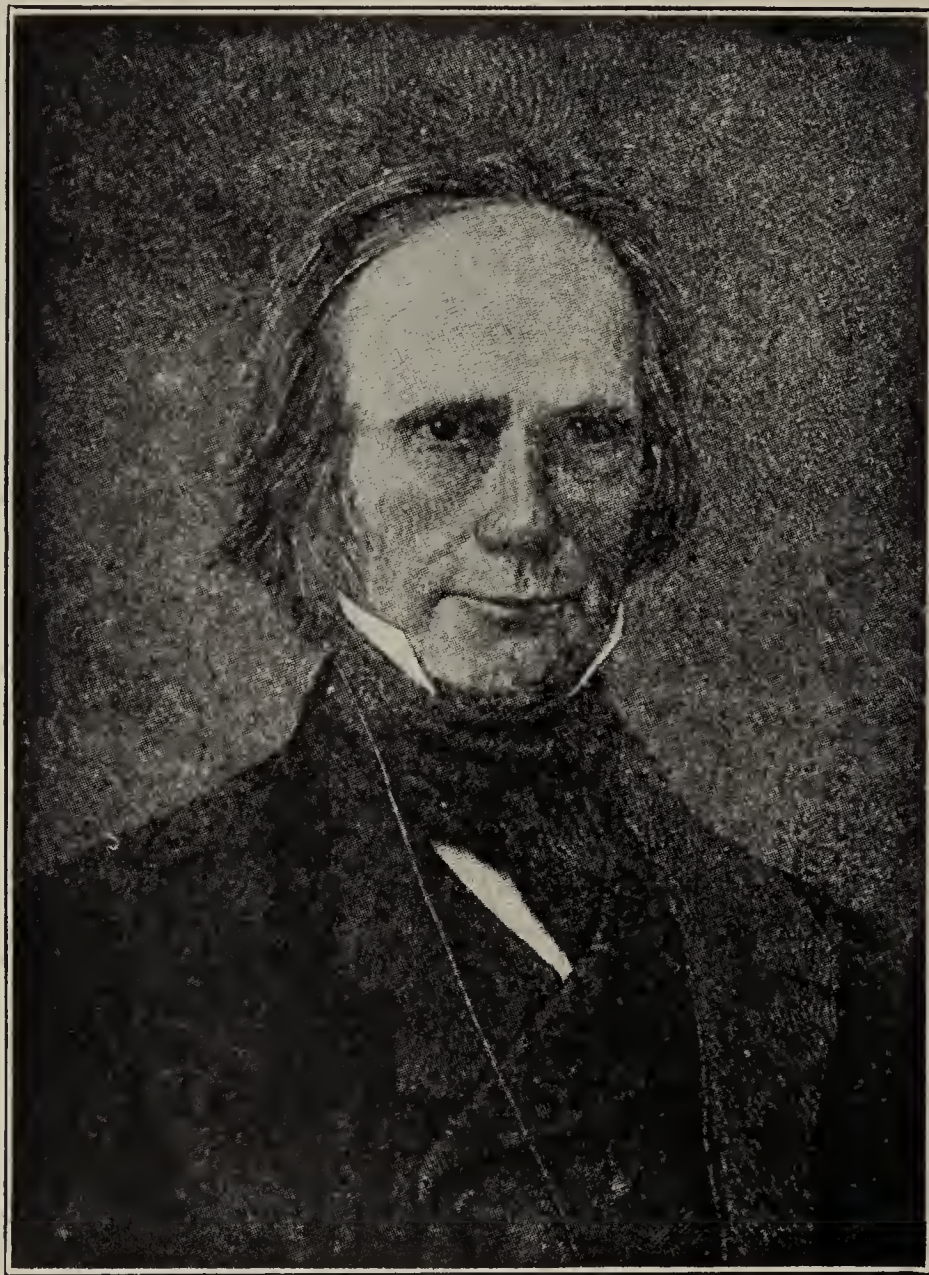
When Missouri applied for admission to the Union, a great dispute arose over the question of slavery. The people of Missouri wanted that State to be admitted as a Slave State. Those who were opposed to slavery insisted that there were enough Slave States already, and that Missouri should come in as a Free State.

Disputes over
slavery

For nearly two years the debate was carried on with bitterness. At last a compromise was agreed upon. It was as follows: Missouri should be admitted as a Slave State, with the understanding that thereafter all States to be formed out of the territory west and northwest of Missouri, that is, above the parallel of $36^{\circ} 30'$, should come in as Free States. Congress agreed to this, and Missouri was admitted (1821). This measure is known as the "Missouri Compromise."

Clay brings
about the
Missouri
Compromise

Henry Clay of Kentucky was prominent in bringing about this happy solution of the difficulty. On account of his many



HENRY CLAY

adroit measures in securing compromise legislation, he is often spoken of as "The Great Pacificator."

The effect of the Missouri Compromise was to exclude slaveholding from all Western States north of the southern boundary line of Missouri, except in that one State. In the meantime Maine had been admitted to the Union as a Free

State in 1820. The Slave States and the Free States were still equal in number.

The aged Jefferson was opposed to slavery, yet he favored its extension to Missouri, hoping thereby to scatter its influence without increasing the evil. He said, after the compromise had been agreed upon, "The question sleeps for the present, but it is not dead: I thank God I shall not live to witness the issue. This momentous question, like a fire bell in the night, awakened me and filled me with terror."

Jefferson's
views on
slavery

12. THE MONROE DOCTRINE

About the time that the United States was obtaining the territory of Florida from Spain, that country was having trouble with her South American colonies. For three centuries Spain had ruled her American colonies with an iron hand of tyranny and ex-tortion. Taxes were burdensome beyond endurance, trade laws were oppressive, and colonial policies were harsh and inconsiderate.

Spanish
misrule in
America

The Spanish colonies rose in revolt. Mexico, Peru, Chile, Venezuela, Colombia, and Argentina threw off the Spanish yoke, set up governments of their own, and prepared to defend their independence.

In Europe, the older governments had been alarmed at the rise of republican ideas. A number of the powers had formed an agreement known as the Holy Alliance. Its purpose was to give mutual aid in putting down any revolution that might occur. This was easily carried out in Europe, and whenever an outbreak occurred in any country in the Alliance, the others would help to restore the old order of things. The ancient monarchies banded

The Holy
Alliance

together to defend "the divine right of kings" and to prevent the spread of democratic ideas of freedom of the people, and popular government.

The allies turned their attention to the condition of affairs in South America. They began to consider how the revolted colonies might be restored to Spain. Possibly they hoped that Spain would reward some or all of them by liberal grants of territory in South America, thus giving them a foothold on that side of the Atlantic.

England was the only European country that opposed this interference in South American affairs. The most severe measures of warfare, however, failed to subdue the sturdy South American republics, and by 1822 almost all of them had practically gained their independence of Spanish rule.

In the meanwhile, Russia, not satisfied with owning Alaska, had issued an order reserving all trade and fishing on the northwest coast as far down as the fifty-first parallel of latitude exclusively to Russian subjects, and forbidding all foreigners to come within one hundred miles of the coast. This seemed to encroach upon the territory of the United States, and there was no telling how far down the coast the Russians would extend their demands.

In view of the situation in South America and the action of Russia, it appeared to President Monroe that the European nations were trying to establish colonies in America. This would be a source of danger and annoyance to our government. John Quincy Adams, who was then the Secretary of State, informed the Russian minister that the United States would take the position that the American continents were no longer open to colonization by any European power. The time had come for the establishment of colonies in America to cease.

President Monroe in 1823 sent his famous message to Congress in which he said :

The American colonies, by the free and independent condition that they have assumed and maintained, are henceforth not to be considered as subjects for future colonization by any European powers.

We should consider any attempt on their part to extend their system to any portion of this hemisphere as dangerous to our peace and safety. We could not view any interposition for the purpose of opposing them [Mexico and the South American republics] or controlling their destiny by any European power, in any other light than as a manifestation of an unfriendly disposition towards the United States.

This declaration is known as the "Monroe Doctrine." It is not a law of the land, but is merely a statement by President Monroe of the policy of the United States. In **Monroe** plain words, it means that no European nation **Doctrine** should henceforth found any colonies in America, nor interfere in the affairs of any American country. This appeared so wise and prudent that it has been enforced by all parties and Presidents since that day as one of the settled principles of our government.

When Monroe asked Jefferson's advice about it, that aged statesman replied that our first maxim should be never to entangle ourselves in the broils of Europe; our second, never to suffer Europe to intermeddle with affairs on this side of the Atlantic.

The message of Monroe had its effect. England joined the United States in demanding that the allies let the South American republics alone. Shortly afterwards a treaty was made with Russia which settled the limits of her claim on the northwest coast. The Monroe Doctrine was announced

in Europe, and has never been contested by any of its governments.

One happy event closed the term of President Monroe. The aged Lafayette made a visit to the United States in 1824. He came as a guest of the nation, and spent a year traveling through the country. Everywhere he was received with affection. The old soldiers wept when they saw him, and the times of the great war for independence were recalled at banquets and public occasions.

The nation was glad to do honor to its famous guest, the friend of Washington and the steadfast defender of the liberties of the people. Congress voted him two hundred thousand dollars, and gave him twenty-four thousand acres of land. When he returned to France he was followed by the prayers and blessings of a grateful nation.

TOPICS

The Critical Period. Population at close of Revolution. Appearance of the cities. Financial distress; value of money. How the Revolution held the colonies together. Continental Congress; Articles of Confederation; their limited powers. Disputes after the war. Shays's rebellion. Discord. The Northwest Territory; organizing the Northwest Territory. Reasons for a better union.

The Constitution of the United States. Constitutional Convention. Discussion; agreement. The three departments. The legislative department; senators; representatives; elections; Congress. Making the laws. Powers of Congress. The President; his duties; his powers. The White House. The judicial department; the Supreme Court; other courts.

Problems before the New Government. The Federalist party; Alexander Hamilton. Republican party; Thomas Jefferson. Difference in the parties. George Washington, President. The money question. The financial genius of Hamilton; his scheme and proposition; opposition to Hamilton. Locating the capital; the compromise. The French

Revolution; European war; American sentiment. Citizen Genet; his reception by the people. Washington's proclamation; reason for neutrality. Genet's conduct; his recall. Washington's retirement; his death at Mt. Vernon.

Trouble with France. Dispute with England. John Jay's treaty; its terms; how it was received in America; demonstrations of the people. The French annoy our commerce. Commissioners sent to France. The proposal to the Commissioners. The X. Y. Z. Affair. Preparation for war; how war was averted. Alien and Sedition laws. The Kentucky and Virginia resolutions. Washington becomes the capital.

The Influence of Thomas Jefferson. His part in the Revolution. Reform in the laws of Virginia. Reform in the church laws of Virginia. Founding the University of Virginia. His character; political belief; founder of political party. Monticello. His habits; his simplicity. The Barbary pirates. Tribute money. Captain Bainbridge. Declaration of war. The exploits of the *Constellation*. Exploit of Stephen Decatur.

The Purchase of Louisiana. Spanish possessions in North America. New Orleans and St. Louis. Napoleon Bonaparte forces cession of territory from Spain. Closing the mouth of the Mississippi; protest from the West. How Jefferson purchased Louisiana. The territory purchased; Jefferson's enemies and his reply. Lewis and Clark; their explorations. New States enter the union.

The Right of the Seas. The French annoy American commerce. England declares for right of search. Impressing seamen. Searching the *Chesapeake*. The Embargo of 1807; its effect on trade. Raising the Embargo; the Non-Intercourse Act. Monroe becomes President. Action of England and France. Tecumseh. The battle of Tippecanoe. Second war with England.

The War of 1812 Begun. Comparison between England and America. Movements of General William Hull. The surrender of Detroit. The *Constitution* and the *Guerrière*. *Old Ironsides*. The *Wasp* and the *Frolic*. The *United States* and the *Macedonian*. The *Constitution* and the *Java*. The *Chesapeake* and the *Shannon*; result of battle; last words of Lawrence. Oliver H. Perry on Lake Erie. Incidents of the battle of Lake Erie. Perry's message. Privateers.

The War of 1812 Concluded. The battle of the Thames; Tecumseh. Massacre at Fort Mims. Andrew Jackson and Horseshoe Bend. Two

battles near Niagara Falls. Advance on Washington; entering the city. Flight of the President and cabinet; Mrs. Madison. Destruction of property. Bombardment of Fort McHenry; retreat of the British; the "Star-Spangled Banner." Invasion from Canada. Battle of New Orleans. Treaty of Ghent. Cost of the war. The Hartford Convention. Lessons from the war.

The Era of Good Feeling. James Monroe. "The Mother of Presidents." Character of Monroe. The Era of Good Feeling. Inauguration of Monroe. Party lines. Reëlection of Monroe. Industrial prosperity. Foreign competition; danger to home trade and industry. Demand for protective duties. Tariff for revenue compared with a tariff for protection. The Protective Tariff of 1816. A high tariff; a low tariff.

The Missouri Compromise. The admission of new States. Number of States in 1803. Number of States during War of 1812. Number of States in 1819. Territory organized. Menace from Florida; Seminole Indian raids. Purchase of Florida. Slaveholding in the new States. Differences of opinion. Slaveholding confined to the South. Dispute over the admission of Missouri. The Missouri Compromise. Henry Clay. Effect of the Compromise. Jefferson's views on slavery.

The Monroe Doctrine. The policy of Spain in America. Revolt of Spanish colonies. The Holy Alliance; its purpose. The action and the hopes of the allies. Demands of Russia. Notice to Russia. Monroe's message. The Monroe Doctrine; its meaning; Jefferson's opinion. The effect of the message. Visit of Lafayette.

SUBJECTS FOR STUDY

Of what advantage is a union of all the States? Why was the Constitution necessary to make the United States? Discuss the relative merits of power in the central government and power in the State governments. Why is it necessary for all nations to have the freedom of the seas? Discuss the relative merits of tariff for revenue and tariff for protection. Of what advantage is the Monroe Doctrine to the United States?

COMPOSITION

Write the names and duties of the three departments of our government.

Write what you consider to be the most striking characteristics of Jefferson.

If you had been with Lewis and Clark, write an account of your adventures.

Write the supposed story of a seaman taken from his own vessel by British officers.

MAP STUDIES

Define the lines of the Northwest Territory. Locate the Barbary States and Tripoli. Define the limits of the Louisiana Purchase. Outline the Lewis and Clark expedition. Locate the battle of Lake Erie; the battle of the Thames; Fort Mims. Define the line of the Missouri Compromise.

Collateral Reading. "Old Ironsides," by O. W. Holmes. "The Star-Spangled Banner," by Francis S. Key.

CHAPTER IX

THE PROGRESS OF THE NATION

1. GROWTH OF THE COUNTRY

In 1824 there were four candidates for the Presidency: William H. Crawford, of Georgia, Andrew Jackson, of Tennessee, Henry Clay, of Kentucky, and John Quincy Adams, of Massachusetts. No one of the four receiving a majority of the electoral votes, it became the duty of the House of Representatives to elect a President.

John Quincy Adams was chosen President. He was the son of John Adams, the second President. He was not a popular President, for he was an austere, cold, and reserved man, although an honest and capable one.

Fifty years had gone by and the Republic had grown to ten million people. The thirteen States had become twenty-four. The territory had been extended to the Gulf of Mexico and across the continent to the Rocky Mountains and the Pacific Ocean. It is true that the vast region west of the Mississippi was settled in a few places only, and the Indians still roamed over its plains, but the land was ours and the eager eyes of many pioneers were already fastened upon its treasures of soil and forests.

A tide of immigration from the Old World had brought many people to America. The oppressed and poverty-stricken people of Europe, soldiers released from the armies, and adventurers bent upon better fortunes, turned their faces toward America. Many thousand

immigrants reached our shores every year. Many of these moved on into the West, but the larger number remained in the cities on the Atlantic seaboard.

New York had become a prosperous city of a hundred and sixty thousand people, growing at the rate of eight to ten thousand people a year. It was almost impossible **New York** to supply houses for the newcomers to live in. **City** Entire blocks of fine brick buildings were erected on sites which five years before were mere marshes, or else covered with cheap wooden huts. Over a thousand sailing vessels entered the harbor every year, bringing all kinds of foreign wares and loading for a return trip with the products of our farms, forests, and factories.

The city had customs very different from those of today. Every citizen was required to sweep in front of his house and to the middle of the street twice a week. From December to April there was no street cleaning. Hogs became the only scavengers of the dirty streets, and were allowed to run at large, provided they had rings in their noses.

Philadelphia was the next city in size. Its customs were like those of New York. Every householder had to sweep in front of his house on Friday or pay a fine. On **Philadelphia** Sundays the streets were chained off in front of the churches to prevent vehicles from passing and making a noise. The night watchman still cried the hours, trimmed the wicks of the lamps, and kept a sharp lookout for fires and late wanderers about the streets.

New Orleans, Charleston, and Savannah were the principal cities in the South. They still had the appearance of large villages, though many a fine mansion stood inside **Southern** a stately grove upon a prominent street. The **cities** main occupation of the people was supplying the needs of the

farmers of the neighboring sections, manufacturing upon a small scale of much-needed wares, and handling the ships that crowded the wharves loading cotton and other products for foreign and Northern markets.

The travel between the towns was still by stagecoach over the rough roads, or partly by steamboat and partly by stage.

Travel New York was two days from Boston, and eleven hours from Philadelphia. Philadelphia was fifteen hours from Washington, and five days from Pittsburgh. New York was ten days from Charleston. This time was considered fast in those days, though now it would be thought intolerably slow.

The stagecoaches were lumbering affairs, generally drawn by a single pair of horses, making eighteen or twenty miles before a fresh pair was used. Travelers reached their resting places about dark or a little later, and after supper in the wayside inns, went at once to bed. They were called about three o'clock in the morning, and whether it rained or snowed, or not, the traveler must rise and make ready for the day's journey. A week's traveling such as this was by no means an enjoyable experience.

Some of the turnpikes, however, were splendid roads. The road from Albany to Schenectady ran in a straight line, bordered with poplars, with good taverns along the way. Horses were changed every ten miles, the coaches were clean and comfortable, and the drivers blew their horns as they rattled merrily along the highways. It was not unusual to cover one hundred miles in a day's travel.

Post offices Post offices had grown rapidly. When Washington was inaugurated there were not more than a hundred post offices in the whole country. Forty years later there were nearly eight thousand. Letters were carried

by stagecoach or post riders. A single sheet cost from six cents to twenty-five cents, according to distance. The larger the letter and the longer the distance the more it cost in postage.

There were no postage stamps, but the cost was marked in ink across the face of the letter, to be paid by the person receiving it. A letter could not be carried faster than a hundred miles a day. Often a letter was weeks on the way. News traveled slowly. The stagecoach lumbered into a town of the South or West bringing newspapers or letters two weeks or a month old, telling of events that now we should consider long past any interest, but which were then hailed with delight by the eager crowd that gathered about the post office to hear the news from the far-off cities.

The use of coal for fuel had been known to the world for a long time. As far back as 1791 a hunter in the mountains of Pennsylvania had found a black rock which would burn, and which was afterwards declared **Coal for fuel** to be coal. Immense deposits were found, but it was hard to induce people to use coal, since wood was so abundant. The company that tried to sell it in New York had to furnish a grate free to every purchaser of a ton of coal.

The presence of anthracite, or hard coal, in Pennsylvania was also known, but it seemed impossible to get it to burn. A boatload was sold for use in a furnace in Penn-**Anthracite**sylvania, and the workmen tried for a whole night to ignite it, but it was so hard they gave up in disgust. Shutting the furnace doors, they went off, but one of the men came back soon to get his coat and found the coal red-hot. The secret of the draft had been accidentally discovered.

At once hard coal became valuable for fuel and manufacturing purposes. The iron industry also sprang into life. Towns

grew up, furnaces and foundries were built, and mines were opened. The coal fields of Pennsylvania and elsewhere are today more valuable than all the gold mines of California.

Along with coal came the use of gas for lighting houses and streets. As with everything new, the people looked with distrust upon the new method of lighting. **Gas for lighting** The gas smelled bad, seemed dangerous and uncertain, and interfered with the business of candle-makers and the oil dealers.

In Baltimore only three people could be found to use gas in 1820. It was adopted for street lighting by Boston in 1822 and by New York in 1823. In 1825 Philadelphia declared that gas was a nuisance, that a burglar could tear up the pipes and leave a whole city in darkness and danger. It was not until 1837 that that city agreed to allow its use. Nowadays every town has its gas works and we know it to be a convenient method of illumination.

What we call the public school was not generally known at this time. There were free schools in New England and some of the other States, but these were generally intended for those who could not pay for the education of their children. **Free schools** Consequently, the people objected to sending their children to "pauper schools," as they were called. The children of the better class of merchants, farmers, and professional men had their own private schools or were taught at home, while hundreds of other children, especially those in frontier settlements, had no schools or else very poor ones.

Those who could afford to pay for the education of their children sent them to large academies or colleges, **High schools and colleges** or high schools. In 1821 Boston established a free public high school. This was followed by New York City in 1825. These were the first public high schools in America.

Colleges and universities were beginning to find their way in the general scheme of education. North Carolina, Georgia, and South Carolina were among the first Southern States to lead the way. In fact there were in 1829 over sixty colleges and universities in the United States, but the great public school system for the education of all the children of all the people was yet to come.

There was a large increase of newspapers and magazines after the Revolution, for the people were eager for news, and

**Newspapers
and
magazines** the political parties needed papers to discuss their doctrines. The presses were crude affairs compared to the great presses of today. They were old-fashioned hand presses, turning out a few hundred copies an hour. The sheets themselves were not large, and were filled with the political news of the country, a few advertisements, and information on general subjects.

Nearly every little frontier town had a newspaper of some sort, while the large cities were already having daily papers.



AN OLD-FASHIONED
HAND PRINTING PRESS

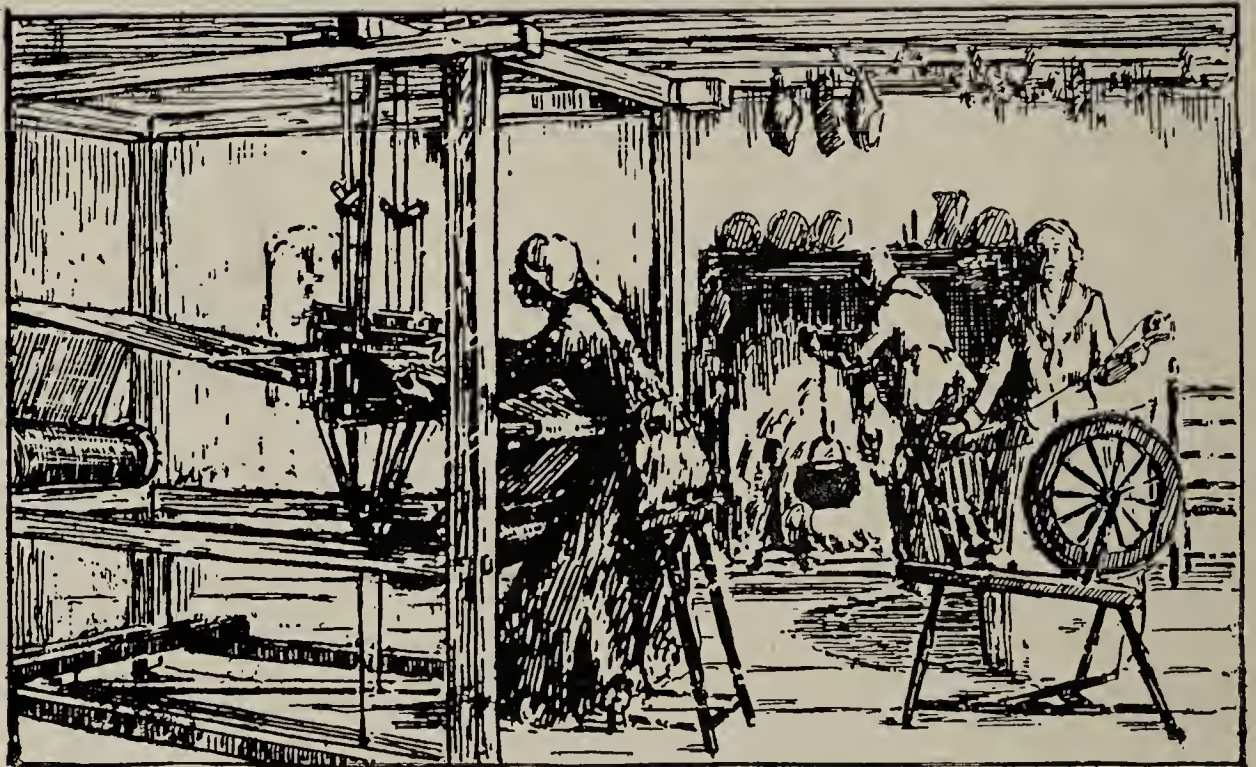
2. INDUSTRIAL DEVELOPMENT

In the early days nearly all the manufacturing was done by hand and in the homes of the people. The implements were crude and clumsy and their operation was slow. Yarn for cloth was made on spinning wheels, and weaving was done on hand looms. Nearly every home in pioneer days used this rude method of making the coarse woolen cloth that supplied the family needs.

Even in England the methods of manufacture were simple and slow, until the importance of her commerce made ma-

chinery necessary to supply the rapidly increasing demand for her products. The mind of English inventors was turned to devising machines for spinning thread and making cloth. James Hargreaves, a weaver in England, invented a spinning jenny for making thread. Richard Arkwright and Samuel Crompton devised other and better machines for the same purpose. Later on

The
industrial
revolution



A HAND LOOM OF EARLY DAYS

Edward Cartwright invented a loom to run by power for making cloth. At the same time James Watt made an engine that would drive all these machines by steam power. Thus every appliance necessary for machine-made cloth in quantity was invented and the era known as the industrial revolution in England began. This brings us down to 1785.

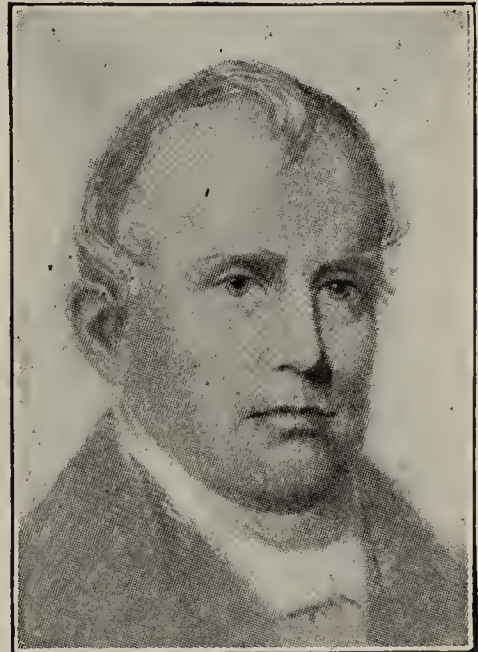
The factory
system
in England

Under these conditions the manufacture of cloth in the homes of the people almost ceased, for the machines made it faster and cheaper. Capitalists began to invest large amounts of money in buying machines,

starting mill towns, and bringing the workers from their homes into great factories, where immense quantities of cloth could be produced by steam-driven machinery.

So rapidly did England develop her factory system that in a few years she gained a lead in the world's commerce that has never been surpassed. Population increased, wealth accumulated, and new cities such as Manchester, Leeds, Liverpool, Sheffield, and Birmingham sprang into importance.

England, however, desired to keep all the advantages of her machinery for herself, and stringent laws were passed prohibiting the exportation of machines, plans, or models of machines. Therefore, the Colonies before the Revolution, and the States afterwards, could not profit by the inventions of the mother country; they were merely expected to supply the raw material for the English factories to work upon. Under these conditions the Americans resorted to smuggling, and to inventing their own machinery, until the secrets of the manufacture of cotton goods became fairly well known in this country.



SAMUEL SLATER

“THE FATHER OF AMERICAN
COTTON MANUFACTURE”

Samuel Slater, living in England and working as an apprentice in the manufacture of cotton machinery, accidentally read in an American paper of the efforts that were being made to secure machinery and of the bounties offered to those who would come to America and bring models of the machines with them. Slater resolved to move to America, and since the law forbade him carrying any plans

or parts of machines with him, he set about to memorize all the details and to carry them in his mind.

In 1789 he left London for America carrying the precious knowledge with him. The next year he constructed some machinery for a manufacturing firm, on the English plan, doing the work mainly with his own hands, and started a small mill at Pawtucket, Rhode Island. The year 1790 marked the beginning of the factory system in America. Samuel Slater has been called "the father of American cotton manufacture."



ELI WHITNEY

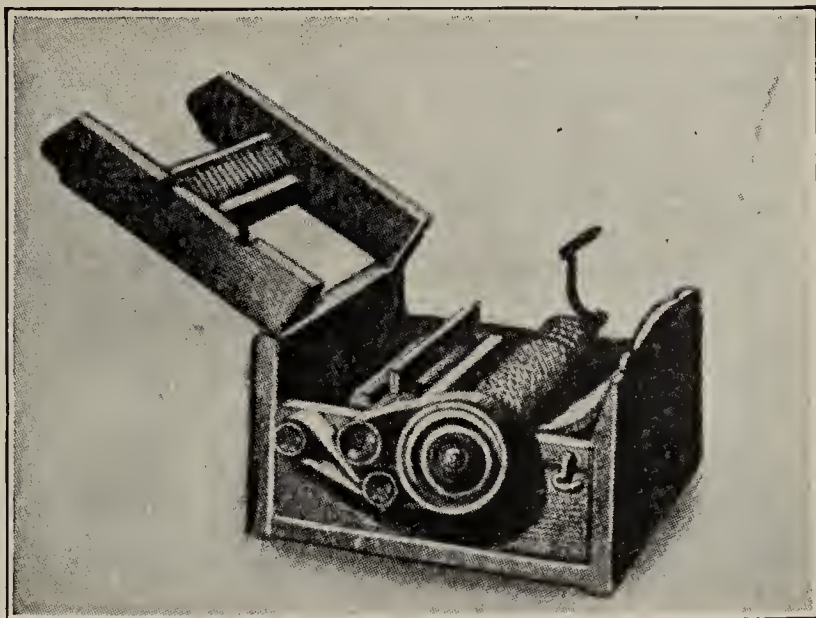
were not enough hands in all the South to clean even a small crop. With the coming of machinery the demand for cotton increased, and the need of a machine for cleaning the fiber from the seed became very great. This need was supplied in 1793 by Eli Whitney.

He was a young man, born in Massachusetts, who had moved to Georgia to teach school and study law. He made his home with Mrs. Nathanael Greene, who was living at that time not far from Savannah.

Upon one occasion she had a number of distinguished guests to dinner, and they were discussing the difficulty of

The growth of the factory system for the manufacture of cotton cloth was slow because the supply of cotton was small. The lint had to be separated from the seed by hand, and one person could not clean more than a pound a day. It was easy enough to raise cotton, but there

removing the cotton lint from the seed. One of the guests remarked that not only fame and fortune would await the man who invented a machine for this purpose, but that he would also do a great service for his country. Mrs. Greene said, "Why not ask Mr. Whitney to make a machine of this sort? He can do anything."

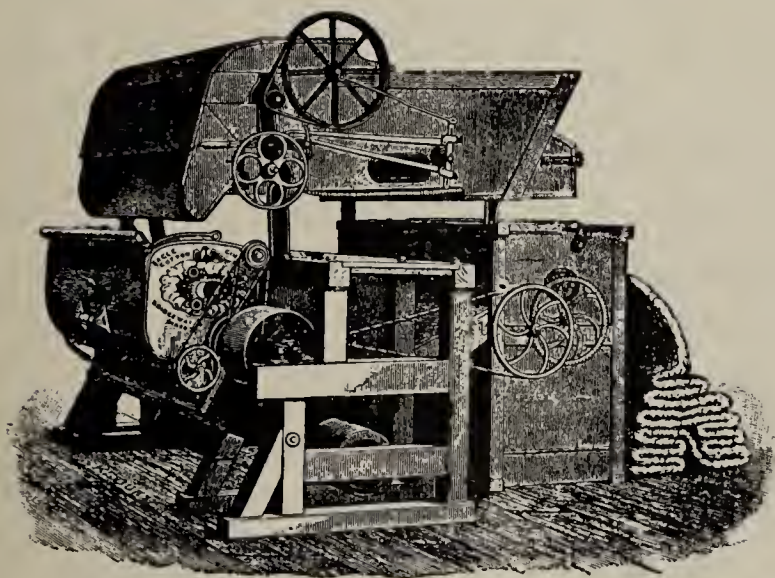


WHITNEY'S COTTON GIN

Whitney was sent for, some cotton was given him, he never having seen any up to that time, and the difficulties explained to

him. He Eli Whitney
at once invents the
set to cotton gin

work on a machine. He had to make his own tools, and with his own hands had to make all the parts of the machine. When it was finished, his friends were amazed to see



A MODERN COTTON GIN

how clever it was. The machine could do as much in a few minutes as a man could do in a day.

In ten years after the invention of the cotton gin a hundred

thousand bales of cotton were exported to England, besides the large quantity used in this country. Every year there was an increase in the crop, and money was coming fast into the pockets of the cotton planters. It helped the people of New England quite as much, for mills for the manufacture of cotton cloth rapidly increased in number.

One of the effects of the invention of the cotton gin and the rapid increase of manufactures was to establish the importance of negro slavery, because slaves were admirably adapted for work in the cotton fields of the South. Up to that time many men, both North and South, regretted that slavery had ever started in the United States. It was thought to be a great evil as well as a great danger. Now that the vast fields of the South were open to the cultivation of cotton by negro slaves, and the New England mills needed cotton for manufacture, very little was said for a while about the evils of slavery. Slavery had become profitable for both sections of the country.

In 1814 Francis Lowell, of Boston, who had been to England to inspect the cotton manufacturing, set up in Waltham, Massachusetts, the first factory in the world in which all the processes in the manufacture of cotton goods from the raw material to the finished product were carried on in one establishment and under one system. The Waltham factory became the model for others of like nature, until the factory system was firmly established in America. In forty years from the time that Samuel Slater began his factory in Pawtucket, the number of factories in the United States increased to over eight hundred.

Other industries were being developed as well. The first iron foundry at Pittsburgh was begun in 1803 on the site of the present post office and the city hall. In twenty-five

years Pittsburgh had eight rolling mills, using fifteen hundred tons of pig iron. Rolling mills rapidly increased in the iron section of Pennsylvania, and the iron industry grew rapidly from year to year.

**Increase of
manufactures**

In Maine the people were establishing tanneries and paper mills, and raising sheep for the woolen mills. Providence, Rhode Island, claimed to be the richest city of its size and population in the world, having in its bounds and neighborhood one hundred and fifty manufacturing establishments of all sorts. New York State was described as "teeming with manufacturing establishments."

In 1825 the capital employed in manufactures the nation over was one hundred and sixty million dollars, and the number of workers was two millions. The nation was fully awake to the great value of developing its resources and encouraging its industries.

The increase of industries and the use of machinery brought a great change in the life of the people. Instead of the scant livelihood of the early days when men made a bare living by farming or by home industries, there was now plenty of occupation for all. There was a demand for mill operatives, machinists, and mechanics. Men found occupation as engineers, firemen, and boat hands. They became tailors, printers, stage-drivers, iron workers, carpenters, clerks, and shoemakers. In fact all the industries were affording occupation and a means of livelihood.

The lot of the workingman, however, was hard. He labored from sunrise to sunset, frequently twelve to thirteen hours a day. In summer he rose at four o'clock, and by sunrise every carpenter, mason, shoemaker, indeed every laboring man, was at his task, nor did he cease from his labors until the sun was well down in the afternoon.

**Condition
of labor**

At ten o'clock in the morning there was an hour for luncheon and at three in the afternoon there was an hour for dinner.

Wages were very low. An unskilled laborer was paid seventy-five cents a day. In winter men often worked for forty cents a day. Women shirt-makers doing piece work in their homes could hardly make more than a dollar a week. All this brought about much poverty and distress.

This condition caused a movement for improving the lot of the laboring classes. The different classes of labor began to **Labor organizations** organize their unions and demand fewer hours of labor, higher wages, better treatment, and payment in honest money. The laborers would sometimes strike in those days as they do now. Sometimes they would gain their cause and sometimes they would lose.

As early as 1791, the carpenters of Philadelphia struck for a ten-hour day, but they were forced to yield to their employers. In 1822 the millwrights and machine workers of Philadelphia struck for a ten-hour day, but without success. By 1825 the workingmen began to organize in earnest, led by the New England women weavers and cotton operatives. Those organizations brought about legislation and reform from year to year, until at the present day almost all labor is organized, and the condition of the laboring classes is steadily improving.

3. IMPROVEMENT IN TRANSPORTATION

Up to the beginning of the nineteenth century all ships were sailing vessels. It took many weeks to cross the ocean, the time depending upon the winds, whether they blew for or against the voyage, or whether they blew at all. A trip to Europe and return was a matter of many weeks, and sometimes months.

Those who moved from one part of the country to another were obliged to travel in heavy wagons, over bad roads, suffering the discomfort of poor inns and bad weather, and oppressed with the intolerable weariness of slow traveling. Occasionally the traveler embarked in a flatboat which floated down the current of a river, or else in a keelboat which could be poled upstream. The time was approaching, however, for travel to become more rapid and more comfortable.

Robert Fulton was a Pennsylvania boy, of an

**Robert
Fulton** inventive turn
of mind. While

still a lad he designed a paddle-wheel rowboat, in which the paddles were turned by a hand crank.

He lived in England for a while and also in France, studying science and en-

gineering. He proposed a scheme for submarine boats and torpedoes to destroy warships by means of high explosives. While in France, he had interested Robert Livingston, a wealthy American statesman, in the idea of propelling a boat by steam power. The idea was not a new one, but up to this time no one had succeeded in making a successful steamboat.

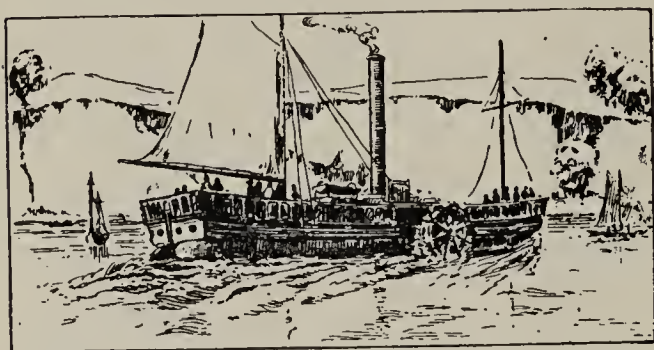
Fulton made a boat with side wheels and an engine to turn them, and in 1803 it was launched upon the Seine River.



ROBERT FULTON

He invited his friends to come and see it work, but the night before the time appointed the boat sank to the bottom of the river. The machinery was so heavy it had broken the boat in two.

Fulton set to work upon another boat. This time he resolved to try his experiments in his native country. He spent all his own money, borrowed from his friends; used all that Livingston would let him have, and, in 1807, was ready



THE "CLERMONT" MAKES ITS TRIAL TRIP

for the trial voyage. He had built a boat one hundred and thirty feet long, with side paddle-wheels turned by an engine. He had been laughed at by many people, who called his boat "Fulton's Folly."

Late in the summer of 1807 a great crowd assembled on the docks of the city of New York to see the *Clermont* — for that was the name of the new steamboat — start on its trial trip. On board were thirty or forty of Fulton's friends; among them were some ladies of the prominent families of the city. The signal was given, the engine started, but the boat did not move. "I will fix it in a few minutes," said Fulton, when he saw the trouble. In less than half an hour the engine started again, the wheels turned, and the *Clermont* moved slowly up the river, amid the cheers of the crowd, the waving of flags, and the congratulations of Fulton's friends.

The boat moved at the rate of four miles an hour, and in thirty-six hours had reached Albany. Here it stayed but one night and came down the river to New York in thirty hours. Fulton had at last proved that a boat could be run by steam

power. He had succeeded where others before him from various reasons had failed.

It was not long before the *Clermont* was making regular trips between New York and Albany, charging seven dollars a trip, and always crowded with passengers. In the course of a few years five or six other boats were built, and were used for passenger and freight service up and down the river and around New York.

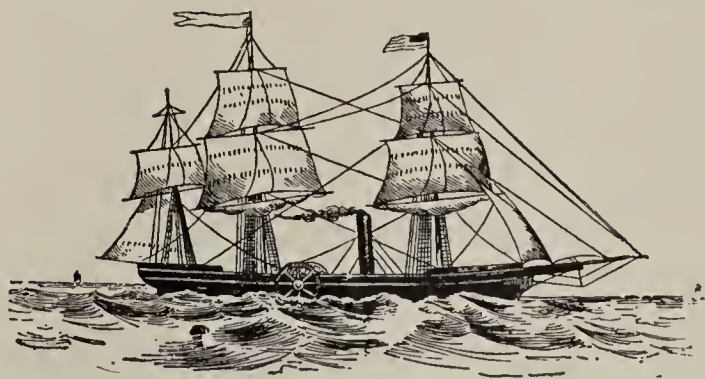
The thought of the people was now upon steam navigation. Every year improvements were made, larger vessels and better engines constructed. In 1811 Fulton put a steam-boat on the Ohio River, at Pittsburgh. In 1815 steamboats were making a trip from St. Louis to New Orleans in twenty-five days. By 1823 the time was reduced to twelve days. By 1825 the Mississippi River had become a highway for steam craft of all kinds.

In 1819 a steamship built by the direction of a company in Savannah, Georgia, and named the *Savannah*, made the first voyage of a steamship across the ocean.

The people in the ports of Europe had never seen a steamship, and as it came into the harbor with smoke rolling from the funnels, other vessels in alarm for what they thought was a burning ship hastened to offer help to put out the fire.

From this beginning have come the great ves-

sels that ply all oceans, carrying thousands of people and tons of freight, crossing the seas in all weather, regardless of winds and tides, and



THE "SAVANNAH." THE FIRST STEAMSHIP TO CROSS THE ATLANTIC

Increase of
steam
navigation

The *Savannah*

making travel by water a delight and a comfort, instead of the once dreary and dreaded experience.

The steadily increasing manufactures of the Eastern cities sought an outlet wherever trade could be found, and the rapidly developing Western towns and frontier settlements were eager for an open communication with the Atlantic seaboard. To meet these demands the Erie Canal was built, being completed in 1825, connecting the Hudson River at Albany with Lake Erie at Buffalo. It was three hundred and sixty-three miles long, and four feet deep. This depth was afterwards increased to seven feet.



MAP OF THE ERIE CANAL

It took eight years to complete its construction. The expense was borne by the State of New York.

When it was finished Governor Clinton went in a canal boat, drawn by four gray horses, from Lake Erie to Albany. He then went down the Hudson River to New York. The canal boat carried a bear, two eagles, two Indian boys, and other things typical of the original country. Clinton also carried with him a keg of water from Lake Erie which he poured into the sea, to show that the waters of the Great Lakes and the Atlantic Ocean were united.

When the canal was opened, a row of cannon, one every five miles, from Buffalo to New York, carried the news by firing in succession.

The canal was a cheap highway between the East and the West. Freight charges dropped so low that no one thought of the overland wagon route. Freight dropped from \$100 a ton by wagon to \$10 a ton by the canal. New York became a great center of trade; the wharves at Albany were crowded with boats, and villages along the canal soon grew into cities.

At first toll was charged on all boats, but today the canal is free, and may be used as a



TRAVEL BY THE ERIE CANAL

means of transportation in exchanging the products of the Eastern and Western markets.

Canals were not possible, however, when mountains stood in the way, and railroads were not yet known. To connect the Ohio River with the East, a great turnpike or road was built by the government from Cumberland on the Potomac River to Wheeling on the Ohio.

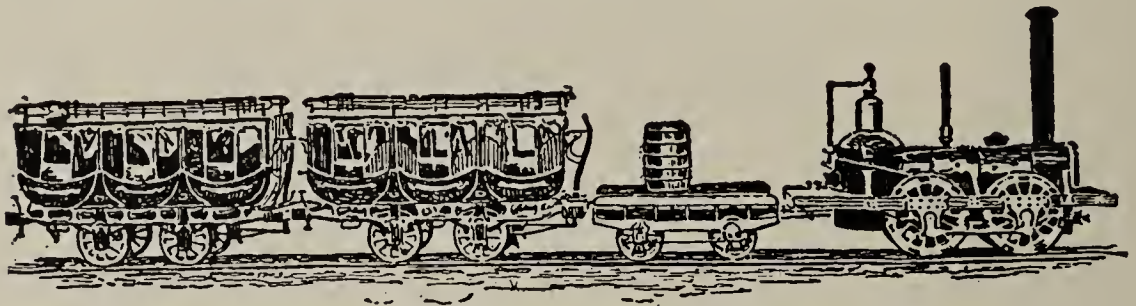
It was twenty years in building and cost six million dollars. It was eighty feet wide, hard and smooth. It connected with the great turnpike from Baltimore and with boats and barges on the Potomac, and became a favorite road with travelers going West.

The road was afterwards extended by the States through which it passed until it nearly reached the Mississippi. It was known as the "National Road." Travel over it was immense. Stagecoaches made regular trips, and packhorses carried merchandise from town to town.

The National
Road

Wagons filled with household goods and farm utensils drew slowly along, up and down hill and over the mountains, carrying settlers and their families into the fertile valleys of the Ohio. In this way the nation rolled westward, opening new territory and filling the country with a prosperous and contented people.

The greatest of all the improvements, however, were the locomotive and the railroad, which had already been invented in England by George Stephenson. He had shown the astonished and somewhat terrified people of that country that a



AN EARLY RAILROAD TRAIN IN AMERICA

train of wagons or carriages could be drawn on a track by a locomotive at a rate of fifteen miles an hour, and that the passengers could still live in spite of the speed.

In 1828 the aged Charles Carroll of Carrollton, then more than ninety years old, and the only surviving signer of the Declaration of Independence, turned the first spadeful of earth for the beginning of the Baltimore and Ohio Railroad. Striking the spade into the ground, he said, "I consider this among the most important acts of my life, second only to that of signing the Declaration of Independence, if second even to that." In 1830 the first locomotive started over the road, and on its trial trip had an exciting race with a stagecoach. At that time there were only thirty-six miles of railroads in the whole country.

The
beginning of
railroads

In 1833 the road between Charleston and Hamburg in South Carolina was completed. It was one hundred and thirty-six miles long, and at the time was the most important railroad in America. In ten years railroads had grown to three thousand miles in length, in twenty years to nine thousand miles, and in 1860 to twenty thousand miles. Today there are over two hundred and fifty thousand miles of railroads in the United States. If put in a line they would reach ten times around the earth.

The first locomotives were rude affairs, very different from the splendid engines of the present day, that dash over steel rails at the rate of a mile a minute. The first coaches were crude carriages, compared with the Pullman cars of today that convey passengers from one part of the country to another with every comfort and luxury.

4. THE MOVEMENT WESTWARD

The great movement to the West was in full progress. The rich valleys of the Ohio and Mississippi were attracting thousands of settlers who set out overland on horseback and in covered wagons, carrying household goods and driving herds of cattle. On every road leading to the West there were lines of moving wagons, with the women and children inside, the men riding their horses, plodding along over hills and mountains, and across the valleys and streams. At Haverhill, Massachusetts, nearly five hundred emigrants passed through the town in two weeks. At Easton, Pennsylvania, over five hundred wagons carrying three thousand persons passed in one month.

In the same way there was a movement South from Virginia and other Middle States to the rich cotton lands of the new States of Alabama and Mississippi. Here the settler

would build his home, open up his farm, purchase slaves for his fields, and begin the life of a cotton planter in the South.

Moving South Mississippi grew from eight thousand in 1800 to over seventy-five thousand people in 1820.

Along the Ohio River steamboats were plying, carrying settlers to the small towns, and supplying them with all kinds of household wares. Some steamboats were floating stores.



© Commercial Museum, Philadelphia

MOVING WESTWARD

When the horn sounded the people rushed to the wharf to buy drygoods, tinware, hardware, guns, seed, and everything that a general store supplied.

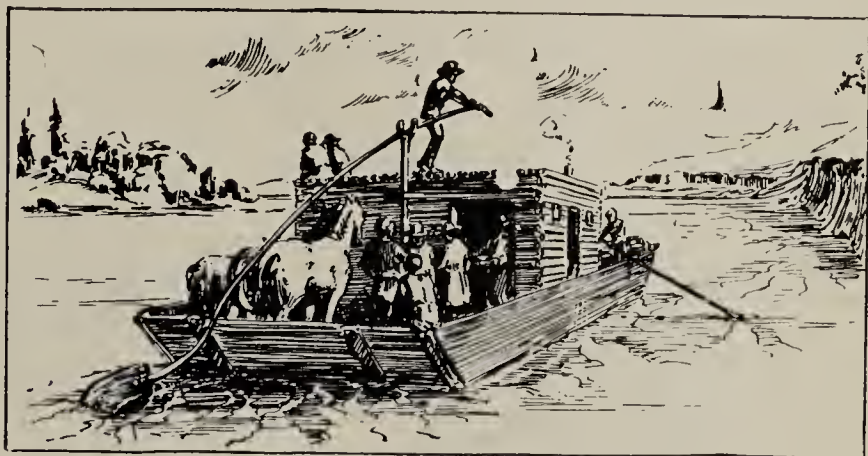
The Ohio The Ohio became a great highway for travel. Broad-bottom boats, with pens for cattle, cabins and rooms for the family, and household goods for the settlement, could be seen in endless procession down the river.

When the settler reached the end of his journey, he sold his boat, bought a wagon, and moved on into the wilderness. As he traveled he drove his cattle before him, and at night

stopped at the wretched inns or camped by the streams on the way.

When he finally reached his future home he cut down a few trees, built a cabin, cleared his land, started his crops, and another frontier

home was begun in the depths of the great West. Soon others would settle near by, and when a cluster of cabins had been formed,



A FLATBOAT ON THE OHIO

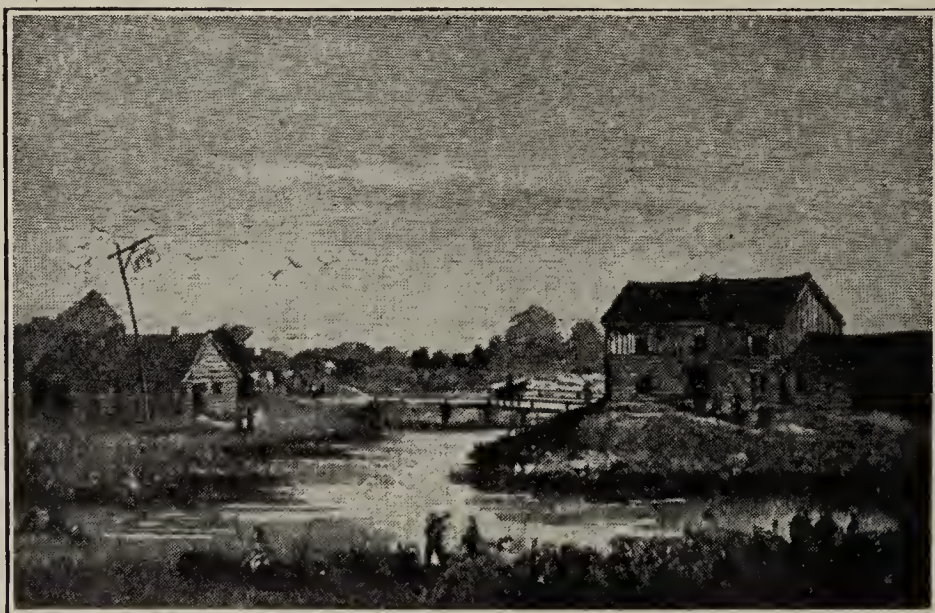
somebody would buy a section of land, cut it into town lots, and probably name it for himself. Thus another town was added to the map, and took its place in the development of our country.

Life on the frontier was very simple at first. The settler generally had no glass for his cabin windows, but used greased paper instead. The doors of the cabins had leather hinges and were without bolts or locks of any kind. The floor was made of split logs laid with the round side downward. The furniture was such as the settler made himself or had brought in his long journey from the East.

Household utensils were of the most primitive sort, all cooking being done on the open hearth, and all dishes being of tinware, or of some other durable material. Corn was the universal bread, and pork was the usual meat. The corn was shelled by hand, or by being rubbed against a piece of tin punched full of holes. Sometimes it was pounded into hominy in a homemade mortar, or carried in bags on the back

of a horse to a mill that was probably a day's journey away, to be ground into meal.

Many an early settler made all the shoes for himself and his family from leather that he himself had tanned. The family clothing was made from cotton or linen, every fiber of which was raised on the little farm, and every yard of which was spun on the homemade looms. For hats or caps the pioneer depended on the skins of small animals, while the larger game



CHICAGO IN 1830 — A FRONTIER SETTLEMENT

of the forest or plain supplied the heavy covering for the beds in winter time.

It did not take long, however, for these hardy pioneers to conquer the wilderness, and accumulate many of the comforts of life. Some of the great men of the nation came from such homes and struggled up through the hardship and privation of frontier life. Gradually the settlers' farms became larger and more valuable, neighbors came, and the settlement grew into a town, and the town into a city. The "old settler" became a picturesque character, spending his last years in peace and plenty and telling his grandchildren of the

time he moved across the country in a wagon and began his home in the wilderness.

The Mississippi River was also a great highway for traffic and travel. By this time steamboats were plying between New Orleans and the towns up the river. In addition to the steamboats, thousands of barges drifting with the current brought the produce of the valleys to the ports for shipping. They made their way slowly down the river, tying up at the wharves by night,

The
Mississippi
River



© Underwood & Underwood, N. Y.

CHICAGO IN 1920

while the boatmen called on their friends and passed the time singing, dancing, and playing cards. When the barge reached New Orleans, the cargo was sold and, probably, the barge itself was broken up and sold for wood. The boatmen worked their way back on the steamboats or rode home through the country.

In 1825 the vast areas of territory west of the Mississippi, now so populous and thriving, and divided up into States,

were known only to the fur trader and explorer. The sites of such cities as Denver and Salt Lake City and of many other growing cities of the West were still in the unbroken wilderness. Even up to 1830 Chicago was a hamlet of log houses, inhabited by not more than a hundred people.

The Far West

West of the upper Mississippi was a great unorganized territory traversed by the Missouri River; to the southeast and along the lower Pacific Coast lay the possessions of Mexico; in the northwest was the Oregon Country. Far scattered forts, a few trading posts, and a settlement here and there, were the only holdings of white men among the many Indian tribes that roamed over the land.

Beyond the Mississippi, St. Louis was the chief settlement, being the center of the fur trade of the Far West, though at this time it was hardly more than a large village.

St. Louis

Large caravans were sent out by the fur companies across the plains and over the mountains, through passes known only to the Indians and fur traders, in search of furs for the markets of the East. The fur trade laid the foundation of many large fortunes for the enterprising merchants who formed companies and established trading posts in the Northwest.

The passing of the caravans and traders made well-beaten paths up the Arkansas and Platte rivers, which paths or roads afterwards came to be known as the Santa Fé Trail, and the Oregon Trail. Independence in Missouri was the starting point of the Oregon and the Santa Fé caravans. Long trains of canvas-covered wagons, loaded with goods brought up the Missouri River, started overland, attended by armed men on horseback for the long journey to Santa Fé.

The Santa Fé Trail

Often the caravans were attacked by Indians, sometimes they lost their way, and sometimes they suffered from sandstorms. But the bold adventurers held steadily on, until they reached their destination, where they traded their cotton, silks, china, hardware, and other goods for Mexican blankets, silver, furs, and whatever else the Spanish and Mexican traders had brought over their trails to sell or exchange.

The Oregon Trail led along the Platte River, over the Rocky Mountains, into the fur-bearing country of Oregon and the Pacific Coast. It took months for a train of **The Oregon** packhorses to go and return, their journey being **Trail** attended often with adventure, and always with hardship. The Oregon Country was held jointly by England and the United States at this time, but the English were more numerous and gave the American fur traders a great deal of trouble.

It was not until 1832 that the first wagon train crossed the mountains into the Green River Valley. In 1834 and 1835 some American Protestant missionaries, among whom was Marcus Whitman, were sent out to Oregon to teach religion to the Indian tribes. Yet up to 1841 not quite a hundred and fifty Americans had settled in Oregon, though the trail over the mountains was well known and frequently traveled by traders and adventurers. Today Oregon is a great and prosperous State of about seven hundred thousand people.

TOPICS

The Growth of the Country. John Quincy Adams becomes President. Growth of population; the increase in number of States; the extension of territory. The tide of immigration. Size of New York; commerce; customs. Philadelphia; customs. Southern cities; occupations of the people. Travel by stagecoach; distances between cities. Discom-

forts of travel. Special turnpikes. Growth of post offices; postage; news in the South and West. Use of coal for fuel. How anthracite came to be used. Use of gas for lighting. Free schools; private schools; academies; public high schools; colleges. Newspapers and magazines.

Industrial Development. Early methods of manufacture. Inventions of Hargreaves, Arkwright, Samuel Crompton, Edward Cartwright, and James Watt. The factory system in England. Laws against exportation of machinery. Samuel Slater comes to America; beginnings of the factory system in America. Demand for cotton. How Eli Whitney came to invent the cotton gin; effect of the invention on raising cotton; effect upon slavery. Francis Lowell and the Waltham factory. Iron in Pittsburgh. Industries of Maine. Claims of Providence. Capital employed in manufactures. Demand for labor; lot of workingman; hours of work; wages. Labor unions; strikes; organizing labor.

Improvements in Transportation. Early sailing vessels. Early methods of moving. Robert Fulton; his early life, studies, and schemes; first efforts and failures; "Fulton's Folly"; success of the *Clermont*; beginning of steam navigation; the *Savannah*. The Erie Canal; length; depth. Opening the canal; effect on freight rates. The National Road; travel over it. George Stephenson and the locomotive in England. Charles Carroll and the beginning of the Baltimore and Ohio Railroad. Railroad in South Carolina. Growth of railroads. Improvement in coaches.

The Movement Westward. Moving West; Haverhill; Easton. Movement South. Steamboats on the Ohio; broad-bottom boats and the moving pioneers. Settling on the frontier. Life on the frontier; the cabin; furniture; household utensils; corn; clothing. Beginning of towns; the old settler. The Mississippi River; flatboating on the river. The Far West; unknown regions; Chicago in 1830. Conditions of the Far West. St. Louis and the fur trade; caravans. The Santa Fé Trail; caravans. The Oregon Trail. Missionaries and settlers in the Oregon Country.

SUBJECTS FOR STUDY

Why do immigrants seek America in such large numbers? What reasonable restraints should be placed upon immigration? Compare

the conditions and customs of New York and Philadelphia of today with those of 1825. Discuss the advantage and importance of post offices and the cheapness of postage of today. What are the advantages and possible abuses of the factory system? What conditions brought about the organization of labor? Compare the speed and comfort of travel today with the slowness and discomfort of early days. What influences induced men to move into the West? What inducements brought them South? Discuss the attractions and the hardships of life on the frontier.

COMPOSITION

Describe the arrival of news in a Western town.

Describe the daily life of a laboring man in early times.

Suppose you had been a passenger on the *Clermont* and write your experiences.

Give the imaginary story of some "old settler."

MAP QUESTIONS

Locate the towns in the manufacturing district of England. Locate Pawtucket; Waltham; Savannah; Pittsburgh; Providence. Outline the first voyage of the *Clermont* and of the *Savannah*. Outline the route of the Erie Canal; the National Road. Why was St. Louis a good starting-place for the Western caravans? Outline the Santa Fé Trail; the Oregon Trail.

CHAPTER X

SECTIONAL INTERESTS AND DISCORDS

1. ANDREW JACKSON BECOMES PRESIDENT

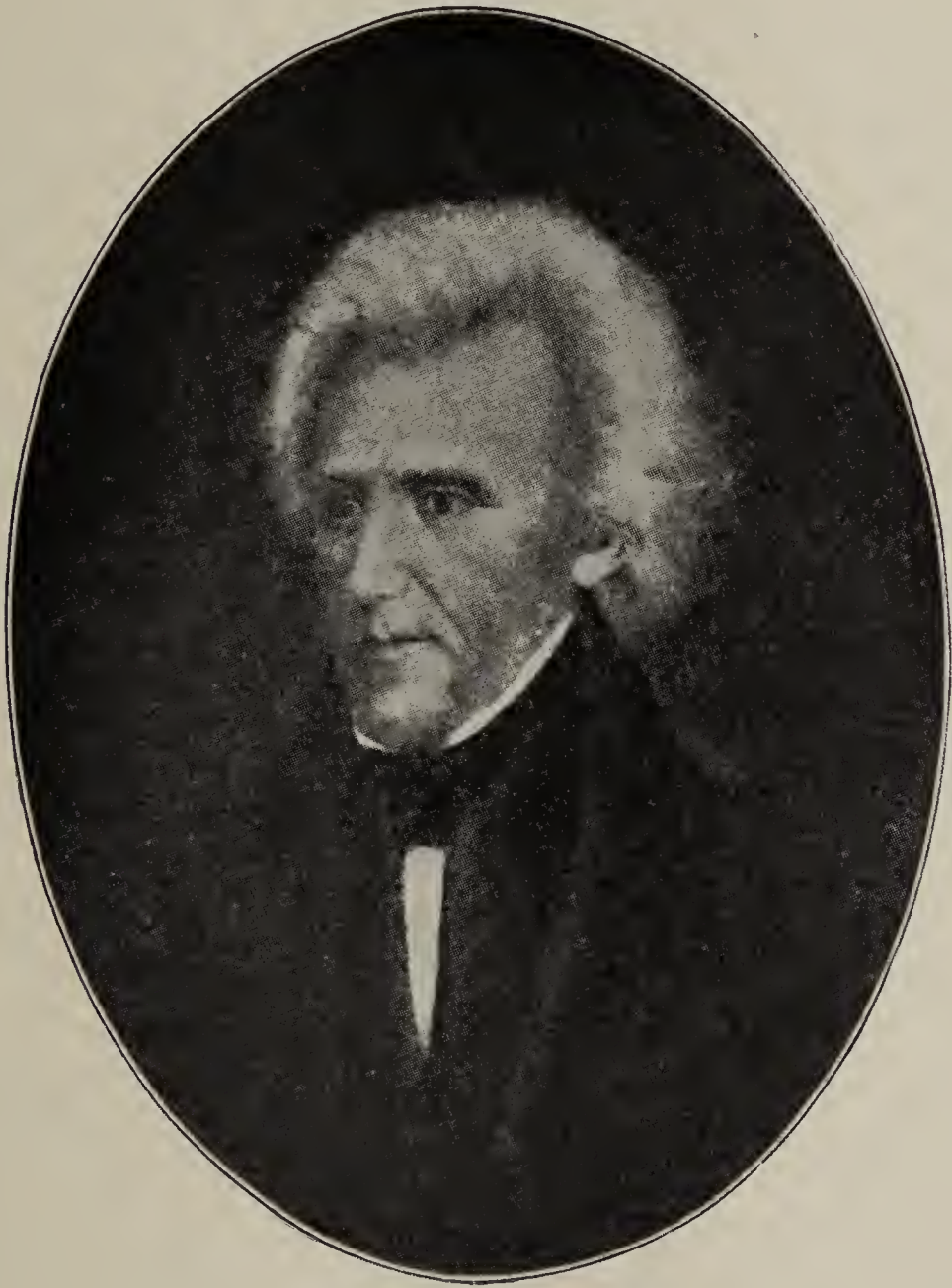
Up to this time all the Presidents had been scholarly men from Virginia and Massachusetts. In 1828 a new era in the history of the country opened with the election of Andrew Jackson, of Tennessee, as President, a sturdy old fighter, and a man of the people.

A new party, known as the Democratic party, was rising into importance. It was the successor of the old Republican party of the times of Jefferson. The opposing party was known as the Whig party. Its great leaders were Henry Clay and Daniel Webster.

In 1828 Jackson was the man whom the Democratic party chose as their candidate for the Presidency, and the announcement of his name was received everywhere with enthusiasm. When approached on the subject, he stoutly declared that he was too old, and unfit for public life. He consented, however, after persuasion, and a long and bitter campaign began in his interest.

Jackson had been put forward as a candidate for President in 1824, when John Quincy Adams was elected. During the time that Adams was President, Jackson's friends were busy planning for his election. Adams did practically nothing to secure his own reelection. When the time came Jackson was elected by a large majority.

The day that Jackson was inaugurated, Washington was packed with people. They had come from far and near to witness the ceremony, to parade the streets, and to eat cake



ANDREW JACKSON

and drink punch at the White House. The crowd trampled over the rich carpets, stood on the plush-covered furniture, broke a handsome chandelier, and cheered lustily for the new President.

The people expected to see Jackson reward his friends and punish his enemies. They were not disappointed. In a short time Jackson had dismissed two thousand men from public office and given their places and salaries to his friends. Before this all the Presidents together had not removed more than a hundred men, and Jefferson had dismissed the most of these. The plan of rewarding one's supporters by giving them office became known as the "Spoils System," from a remark made at the time that "to the victors belong the spoils."

Jackson was strongly opposed to the United States Bank. This institution had been founded by Alexander Hamilton, and had been reestablished in 1816 for twenty years. It received the deposit of the public money, and in return was expected to procure loans for the government and to provide a sound and stable currency for the country.

Jackson attacked the bank as a monopoly, and said it had failed in its purpose. He maintained that the bank was shown too much favor and had too much power, which it could use for political purposes. He firmly believed that the bank had used its power against him in his campaign for President.

The bank applied for a renewal of its charter, which was to expire in 1836. A bill was passed by Congress in 1832, granting the renewal. Jackson promptly vetoed the bill. He sent in a message declaring the bank was unnecessary, expensive, and an un-American monopoly. He insisted that it was hostile to the interests of the people and possibly dangerous to the government. Congress was not able to pass the bill over the President's veto.

Jackson now caused ten million dollars of the public money to be at once removed from the bank. The charter expired,

and the bank began business again as a State bank under the laws of Pennsylvania. The controversy over the **Removal of** removal of the money deposited in the bank was **the deposits** very bitter, and was an issue in the election of Jackson for a second term, but he was sustained by the people.

Let us see what followed. The government money to the amount of forty million dollars was now deposited in State banks favored by the President. These banks **Pet banks** were known as "pet banks." They found themselves possessed of abundant money which they could lend to favored customers.

Worthless banks came promptly into existence. Quantities of paper money were issued. There seemed to be plenty of money to borrow, and everybody began to buy and sell with reckless extravagance. It was an era of wild speculation. People bought land they had never seen. Any kind of scheme was popular. Prices were high and trading was furious.

All at once the government became uneasy about its gold and silver deposited in the State banks. It called in its deposits, and refused to take paper money in payment for wild lands. Then followed an excited scramble for gold and silver. Money became scarce, people became suspicious, and prices fell rapidly.

A terrible panic swept over the country. Banks and business houses failed by the hundreds. In two months business houses of New York and New Orleans failed for one hundred and fifty million dollars. Mills shut down, foundries stopped, workmen were out of employment, and general panic and distress prevailed.

This is known as the panic of 1837. It did not occur until Martin Van Buren of New York had become President, but it was the result of the financial policy started by Jackson.

It took many years for the country to recover. At last the government money was denied to the State banks, and sub-
Panic of 1837 treasuries were established in different parts of the country. Business gradually recovered, and the industries resumed their normal condition.

Jackson was called on to settle the Indian question in Florida and Georgia. The Seminoles in Florida had agreed to move West, but Osceola, one of their chiefs,
Osceola rejected the treaty and refused to move. The military officers sent for Osceola to show him the treaty, but when he came into the room where they were he drew his knife



OSCEOLA DEFIES THE GOVERNMENT

and drove it through the paper and into the top of the table. He was so defiant that he was put in prison.

On being released, he and his followers began plundering and burning the villages and farms, and escaped pursuit by hiding in the swamps. Osceola, who himself had broken faith, was captured while under a flag of truce and confined

in Fort Moultrie. It took several years to subdue his followers and end the war.

Georgia was insisting that the Indians be removed from the northern part of that State. A treaty had been made with the government in 1802, that this should be done as soon as practicable. The government delayed, Georgia insisted, and at last became impatient.

When John Quincy Adams was President, he and Governor Troup of Georgia had a bitter controversy over the matter. Troup threatened to take possession of the Indian **The Georgia** lands anyhow. Adams threatened to send a **Indians** military force to prevent him. Troup started to call on the militia to resist "the invasion," and wrote a bold letter of defiance to the President.

The conflict was fortunately avoided. When Jackson became President he agreed with Georgia that the Indians should be removed, and refused to listen to any of their complaints. Plans were agreed upon to send the Indians to an Indian territory west of the Mississippi. This was peaceably done in 1838, and the Indians were settled in Indian Territory, which afterwards was included in the State of Oklahoma.

2. DISPUTES OVER THE TARIFF

We have already seen that there are two purposes in a tariff on foreign goods. One is to raise money for the expenses of the government, and is called a tariff for revenue. The other is to increase the price of articles of foreign manufacture, and is called a tariff for protection. We are now to see how two great sections of the country had a bitter dispute over the protective tariff.

By this time the Northern States were engaged mainly in manufacturing. Four-fifths of all the mills and factories of

the country were north of the Potomac. There were woolen mills in Vermont, cotton mills in Massachusetts, iron foundries in Pennsylvania, besides tanneries, carpet mills, glass works, and a hundred other kinds of manufacturing industries.

The North
desired a pro-
tective tariff

Nearly two hundred million dollars were invested, and two million people employed in manufacturing in the Northern States. Naturally these States desired a protective tariff, for that meant high prices, and they had much to sell.

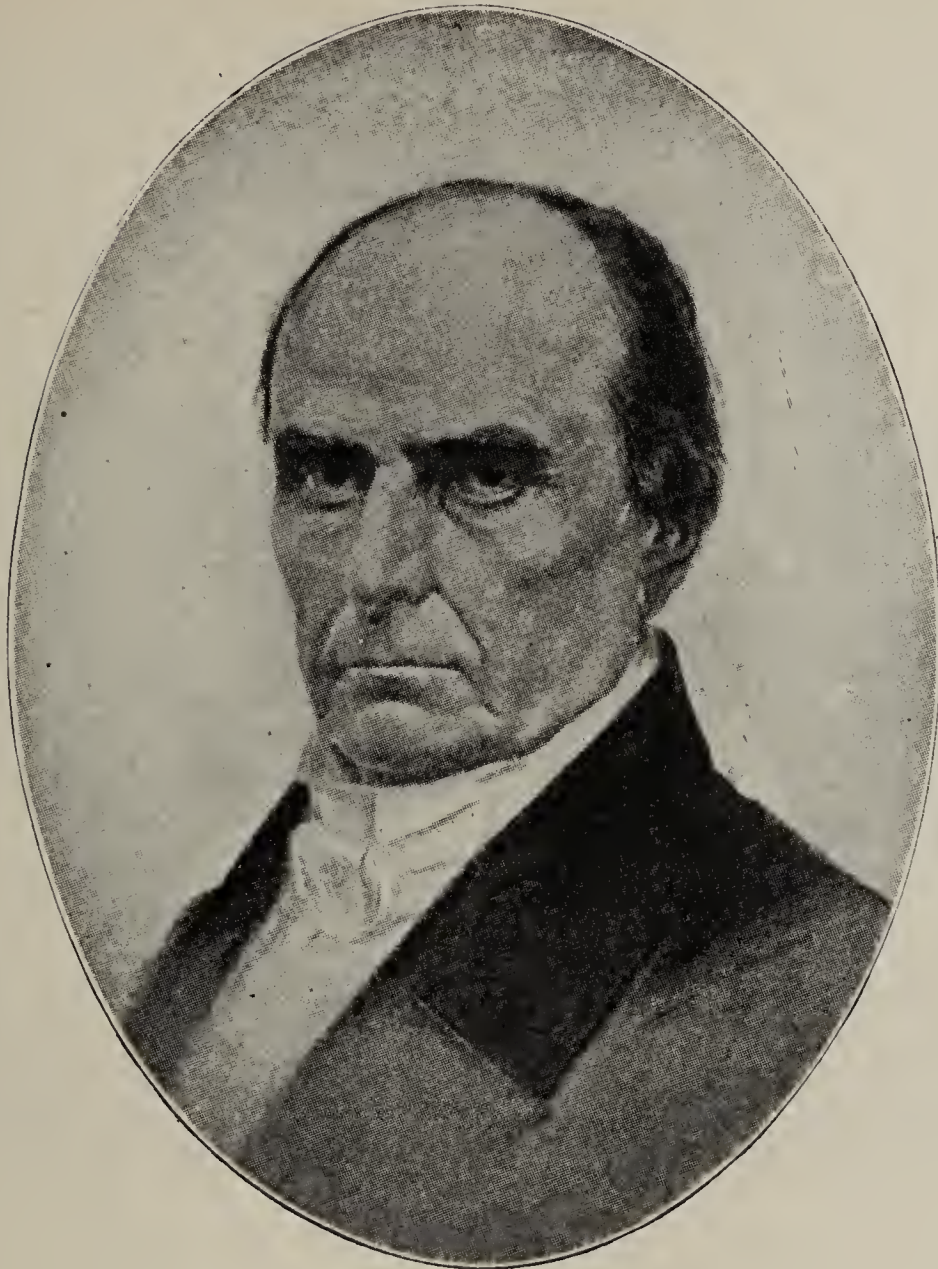
There was but one industry in the South, and that was the raising of cotton. These States raised nearly a million bales of cotton, worth about fifty million dollars, one-third of which was sold to the New England mills, and two-thirds were sold abroad.

The South
desired a low
tariff

The Southern planters bought plows, wagons, woolen cloth, shoes, hats, harness, and indeed everything they needed, from New England or abroad. Naturally the Southern States desired a revenue tariff only, for that meant low prices, and they had much to buy. Thus began the old quarrel of the one who wanted to sell high and the one who wanted to buy cheap.

A number of protective tariff acts had been passed from time to time by Congress, but the one of 1828 was the cause of the greatest irritation and dispute. It met with intense opposition in the South, because it laid such high duties on the things the people had to buy. Those States declared that they would be reduced to poverty. It was taking money out of the pockets of the South and putting it into the purses of the North. The people of South Carolina even proposed not to obey the law; that is, to nullify it so far as that State was concerned.

On the other hand, the Northern manufacturers replied that without the tariff they could not go on with their work,



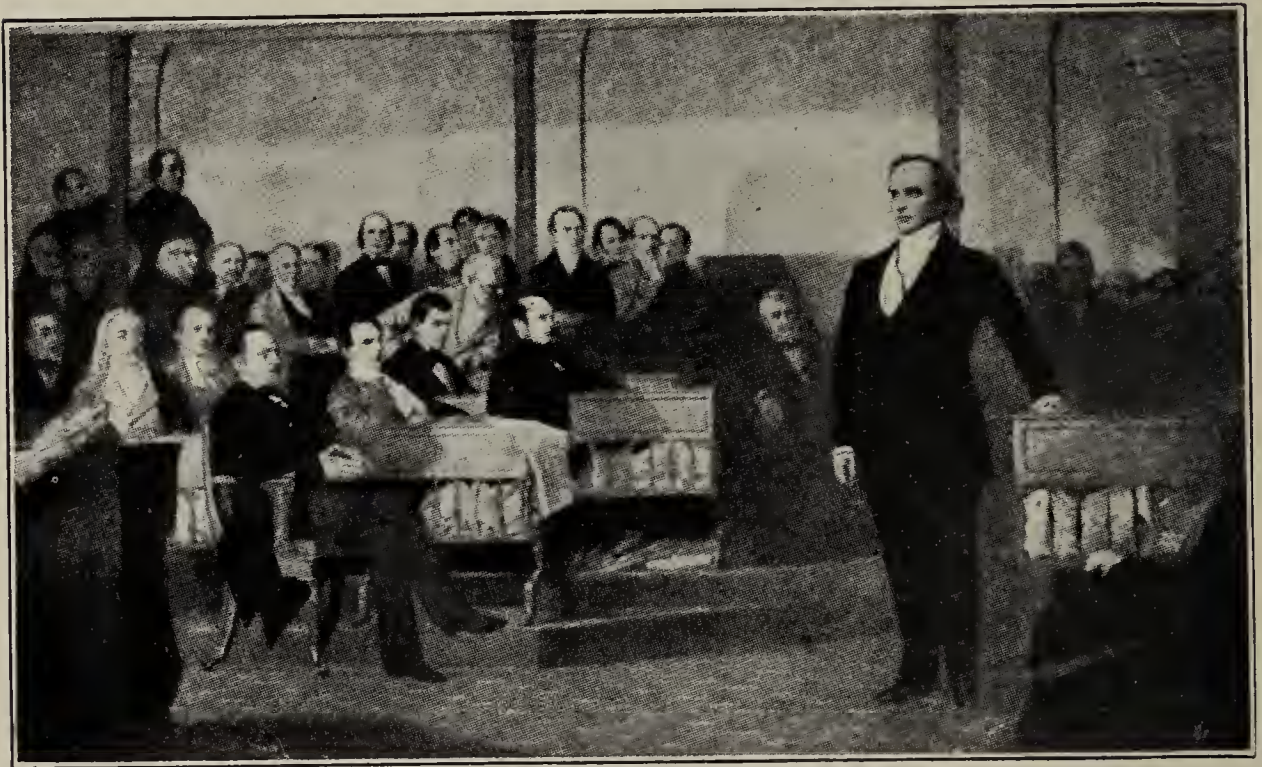
DANIEL WEBSTER

that their mills would have to stop and their workmen be dismissed. Thus the two sections stood at complete variance on the subject of a protective tariff.

In 1830 occurred the great debate in the United States Senate between Daniel Webster, senator from Massachusetts, and Robert Y. Hayne, senator from South Carolina. It was a memorable occasion. Hayne argued with great power that Congress had no right under the Constitution to pass a tariff act that destroyed one section

Hayne's argument

of the country and built up another; that, if such a course was insisted upon, any State thus injured had a right to refuse to pay the duties, and might nullify the laws of the United States so far as that State was concerned; that the New England States were pursuing the policy of a protective tariff to the detriment of the Southern States.



WEBSTER'S REPLY TO HAYNE

Daniel Webster replied to Hayne. He argued that one State alone could not be the judge of the wisdom of the general laws without bringing ruin to the country; that no State could nullify the operation of the laws in its borders without being guilty of disloyalty to the Union; that the Union was greater than any State; and that the Constitution was "a government made for the people, made by the people, and answerable to the people."

It had been known that President Jackson was not in favor of the protective tariff. The South had supported him in his

election, and was now anxious to know his position on the subject of nullification. It did not have long to wait.

The President was invited to a dinner given to celebrate the birthday of Jefferson. Many toasts had been offered in which the power of a State to declare the laws of Congress null and void in its limits had been hinted at. The President was called upon to offer a toast, and everybody was eager to know what were his sentiments. He slowly rose and offered the toast, "Our Federal Union; it must be preserved." This showed his position and ended the hope of the nullifiers.

A new Tariff Act was passed by Congress in 1832. It was as unsatisfactory to the Southern States as the others had been. John C. Calhoun,¹ the great statesman of South Carolina, who was then Vice-President, was strongly opposed to it. He wrote a letter to the people of South Carolina advising them not to submit to the tariff, as it was in his opinion unjust and unconstitutional.

South Carolina followed the advice of her great son. A convention met in November, 1832, and passed an ordinance declaring the tariff null and void in South Carolina, and

¹ Calhoun was one of the famous men of the time. With Webster and Clay he formed "the great trio," who were the giants in the debates over these burning questions. He was the idol of the people of the South, who found in him their strong champion of States' Rights, and the defender of all their institutions. Webster, who opposed him in the debates, said of him, "Nothing groveling, low, or meanly selfish came near his head or his heart."

Calhoun and Jackson had been friends for many years. Calhoun was in the cabinet of President Monroe at the time Jackson made his raid into Florida without the authority of the government, and made the remark, "Jackson should be court-martialed for that offense."

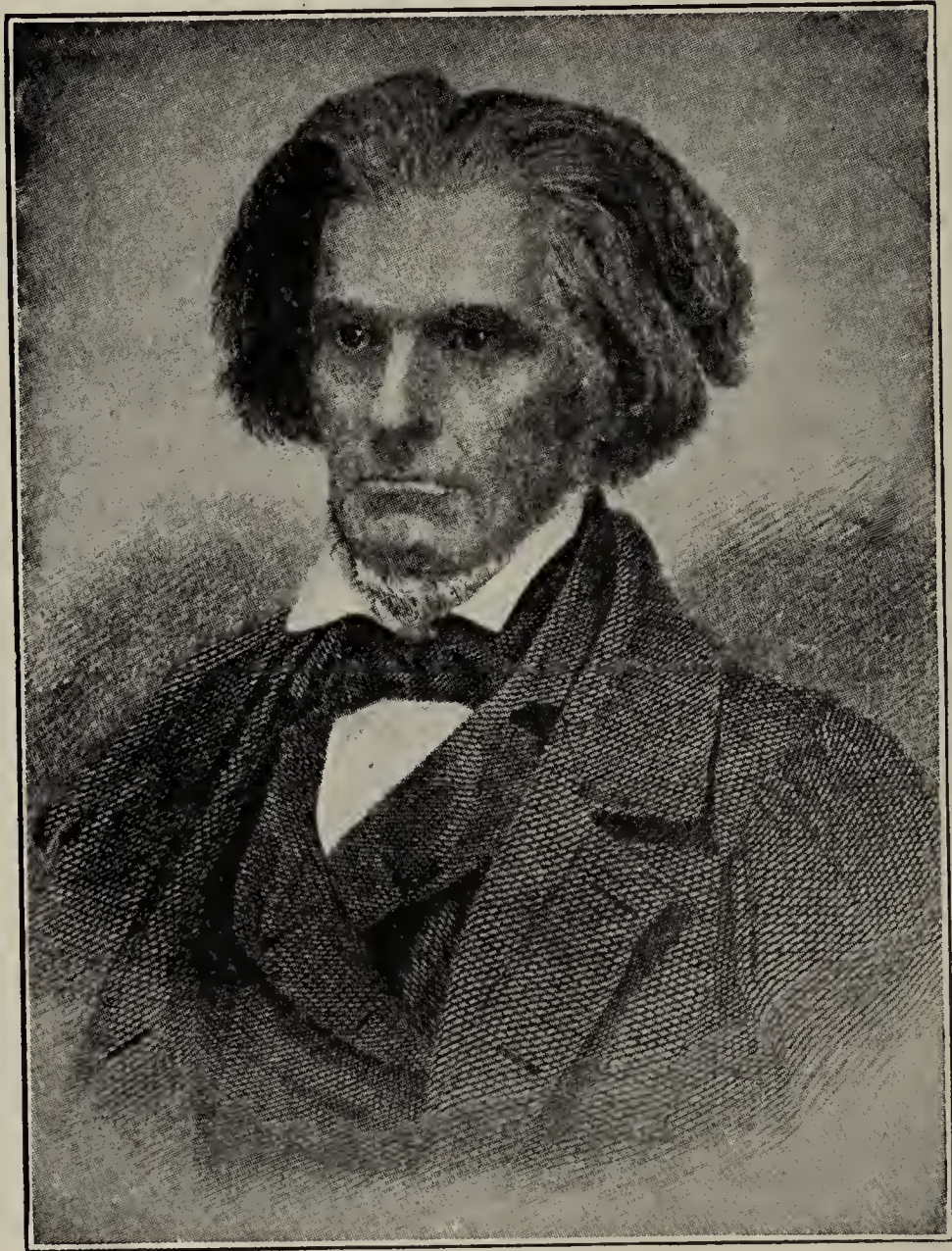
Some one, years afterwards, told Jackson, and he became Calhoun's bitter enemy. He never forgave him for the remark, and stood ever in the way of Calhoun's ambition to become President.

threatening that that State would leave the Union if any attempt was made to enforce the revenue laws.

Nullification

This was an Ordinance of Nullification.

When President Jackson heard of it he acted with his usual vigor and promptness. He sent word to the collector at



JOHN C. CALHOUN

Charleston to collect all duties, even if he had to employ force. He ordered General Scott to go to that port and see that the laws were obeyed. He threatened to hang the

first man that shed a drop of blood in opposition to the laws of Congress.

He issued a proclamation to the people of South Carolina in which he said, "The laws of the United States must be executed. I have no discretionary powers on the subject — my duty is pronounced in the Constitution. Those who told you that you might peacefully prevent their execution have deceived you. Their object is disunion, and disunion by armed force is treason."

Hayne was made Governor of South Carolina. Calhoun resigned the Vice-Presidency and was elected to the Senate. Here the angry debate was continued under his **The Force** great leadership, while South Carolina awaited **Bill** the outcome. Jackson applied to Congress for power to carry out the laws, and a bill known as the Force Bill was passed, giving the President power to enforce the revenue laws by arms. A conflict with South Carolina was close at hand.

Henry Clay now entered the debate, with a compromise measure. His eloquence had, at other times, brought peace to contending parties. He now used all his **Clay's** powers of persuasion to avoid the issue that was **compromise** threatening. He saw that the government and South Carolina were resolved upon the course each had taken and that neither would yield. Therefore, he proposed a gradual reduction of the tariff, a little every year, so as not to bear hard upon the Northern manufacturer and yet meet the views of the Southern States. After a long debate this measure was agreed upon.

South Carolina accepted the compromise, repealed the Ordinance of Nullification, and the war clouds passed away. When Clay, who had been, and still was, a candidate for President, was told that his compromise measures would

defeat his ambitions, he made the noble reply, "I would rather be right than be President."

3. THE ANNEXATION OF TEXAS

At this time the two political parties were the Democrats and the Whigs. Andrew Jackson was the leader of the Democratic party, and at his suggestion Martin Van Buren, President of New York, was nominated in 1836 for President, and was easily elected. Jackson retired from public life, leaving Van Buren to bear the burden of the great panic of 1837.

In 1836 Arkansas was admitted to the Union as a Slave State. The next year Michigan came in as a Free State. This made twenty-six States, equally divided between Slave States and Free States.

At the end of Van Buren's term, the Whigs, in 1840, nominated William Henry Harrison to oppose him for reëlection.

"Tippecanoe, and Tyler too" Harrison was an old soldier of the War of 1812, and had won fame at the battle of Tippecanoe.

He was now living on his farm in Ohio, a plain man of the people. John Tyler of Virginia was running on the same ticket for Vice-President. The campaign cry of the Whigs became "Tippecanoe, and Tyler too."

It was an exciting contest. Van Buren was called an aristocrat, who lived in a fine house and rode in a carriage. He was held responsible for the panic, though he was not really so. Harrison was a plain farmer who had been reared in a log cabin. His opponents said all he wanted to make him happy was a barrel of hard cider. His friends at once adopted the log cabin and the cider barrel as emblems in their campaign.

Mass meetings were held, speeches were made, and long

parades formed in which were log cabins on wheels and wagons carrying barrels of cider. It was called the "Hard Cider Campaign." At the end Harrison and Tyler were overwhelmingly elected. It was the first great victory of the Whigs.

One month after he was inaugurated, the old soldier, worn out by work and ill from exposure, died of pneumonia. This was a great blow to the Whig party. Tyler, the Vice-President, who now became President, was more of a Democrat than a Whig, and most of his administration was spent in quarrels with his party and opposition to their measures.

The great event of Tyler's administration was the annexation of Texas to the United States. In order to explain how this came about, we must tell the story of how Texas became an independent republic.

Texas was a part of Mexico. Its fertile fields attracted thousands of Americans, who moved in, some bringing slaves, and all bringing ideas of liberty and self-government. Mexico became jealous of these settlers, who soon outnumbered the Mexicans themselves, and forbade Americans coming into Texas. Finally in 1836 Texas revolted, threw off the yoke of Mexico, and declared herself a free republic.

A heroic struggle for liberty began. Santa Anna, the Mexican President, marched against the Texans. He was a merciless soldier. At Goliad he captured a body of Texans, marched them out of the fort, and cruelly had them shot to death.

The greatest of all his atrocities was at the Alamo, a fort in San Antonio. Here, provided with scant ammunition and a few bushels of corn, a small number of Texans were fortified. Santa Anna surrounded

Hard Cider Campaign

Texas revolts

The Alamo, March 6, 1836

the fort with a large army and called on the Texans to surrender. Their answer was a cannon shot from the walls. A bombardment began that almost destroyed the fort.

At the end of a few days the Texans were worn out by hunger and fighting. The Mexicans clambered over the walls into the fort, the Texans meeting them with clubbed guns and hunting knives. The brave defenders were soon overcome, and every man was put to death. The Mexicans



THE ALAMO, A FORT IN SAN ANTONIO, WHERE SANTA ANNA MURDERED THE TEXANS

spared but six people, — three women, two children, and a negro boy.

The Texans arose as one man to avenge this butchery. Sam Houston was made Commander-in-Chief of the army. Santa Anna was pursued and overtaken at San Jacinto, where a battle was fought. The Texans went into the fight, crying, "Remember the Alamo!" Over six hundred Mexicans were killed, three hundred were wounded, and the rest fled. Of the Texans, eight were killed and twenty-three wounded.

Santa Anna was captured the day after the battle, and forced to sign a treaty agreeing to withdraw his troops, stop

the war, and use his influence to secure the independence of Texas. This practically ended the war, though Mexico did not give up her claim to Texas. All this occurred during the time that Andrew Jackson was President.

Texas¹ now organized as a free republic, and applied for annexation to the United States. At the time there were twenty-six States; thirteen of them were Slave States, and thirteen were Free States. The Free States opposed the admission of Texas, because it extended the number of the Slave States. A controversy arose that lasted eight years. At length in 1845 Texas was annexed to the United States, and was admitted as one of the Slave States of the Union.

Texas ad-
mitted to
the Union

Florida had been admitted as a Slave State early in 1845. The admission of Texas made twenty-eight States, of which fifteen were Slave States, and thirteen were Free States.

4. THE OREGON TERRITORY. WAR WITH MEXICO

James K. Polk, of Tennessee, was elected President in 1844 on the platform of the annexation of Texas. Two great events occupied his administration, each of which resulted in adding a vast tract to the territory of the United States.

The first event was the acquisition of the Territory of Oregon by treaty with Great Britain. This Territory, extending along the Pacific Ocean from the line of Mexico, which is now the line of California, up to Alaska,

The Oregon
Territory

¹ Texas was then and still is the largest State in the Union. Daniel Webster said in jest that it was so big a bird could not fly over it in a week. It is five times as large as England, and is larger than all the New England States combined. From north to south it is longer than from Florida to the Great Lakes; from east to west it is wider than from the Atlantic Ocean to the Mississippi River. It was an imperial domain that came to us with but little cost compared to its great value, though Mexico did not part with it without war.

or the $54^{\circ} 40'$ parallel, was occupied jointly by settlers from England and the United States. We wanted it all, but England would not consent to part with so much territory. The popular cry in America for a while was "Fifty-four-forty — or fight."

In 1846 a treaty was made dividing Oregon between the two nations. The United States took the territory up to the 49th degree of latitude, a vast tract of over a quarter of a million square miles. England took the remainder. This treaty fixed the present boundary lines between the British possessions and the United States. Out

of the Oregon Territory the three States of Oregon, Washington, and Idaho have been formed.

The second event was the war with Mexico. That country had never acknowledged the independence of Texas, though no armies had been sent against the Republic since the battle of San Jacinto.

A dispute arose between Mexico and the State of Texas



THE DISPUTED BOUNDARY OF TEXAS

regarding the boundary line. Texas claimed to the Rio Grande River. Mexico had never surrendered its claim to

all the territory of Texas. General Zachary Taylor was sent into Texas with a body of troops to support the cause of Texas, which had been admitted to the Union.

The Mexicans protested against this apparent invasion of the territory they claimed. A body of Mexicans crossed the

War with Mexico Rio Grande and killed some American soldiers. President Polk at once sent a message to Congress in which he stated, "War exists by the act of Mexico herself. Mexico has invaded our territory and shed American blood upon American soil." Congress in 1846 declared that war existed "by the act of Mexico."

The war with Mexico lasted nearly two years.

Buena Vista During that time General Taylor held the line of the Rio Grande. The Mexicans were

badly defeated by him in every engagement. General Taylor then advanced to Buena Vista. Santa Anna, the Mexican general, had marched against Taylor with twenty thousand men. Taylor had only six thousand, but was well fortified in the mountain passes. Santa Anna sent a demand for



TAYLOR'S TROOPS DEFEAT THE MEXICANS AT BUENA VISTA

surrender. "General Taylor never surrenders," was the brief reply.

In the battle which followed, the American artillery did great damage to the Mexican troops. General Taylor, who was called by his men "Old Rough and Ready," was seen everywhere encouraging his soldiers. Riding up to Captain Braxton Bragg, he said, "A little more grape, Captain Bragg, and the day is ours."

The Mexicans were defeated with great loss. This ended the operations on the Rio Grande and made General Taylor a popular hero. American troops now marched into New Mexico and California and quietly took possession of that territory, which at the time was part of Mexico.

General Winfield Scott prepared to end the war in 1847 by an attack on the City of Mexico itself. He landed at Vera Cruz, and started on a long march of two hundred miles. At Cerro Gordo he defeated Santa Anna, and drove him back.

Along with General Scott were a number of young officers of skill and daring who were afterwards to be heard of in a greater and longer war. Such officers as Robert E. Lee, Ulysses S. Grant, Thomas J. Jackson, George B. McClellan, and indeed nearly all the great leaders in the Civil War, were fighting side by side in this march to the City of Mexico.

Scott pressed on, losing many men by sickness. At length, with but ten thousand soldiers, he came in sight of the beautiful City of Mexico, defended by thirty thousand troops under the best leaders that Mexico could furnish. The siege lasted nearly a month, and many battles were fought. In September, 1847, the city surrendered. General Scott marched in and unfurled the

**Capture of the
City of
Mexico**

American flag over the Mexican capital. During the war the Mexicans had not won a single battle.

The capture of the City of Mexico ended the war. A treaty of peace was signed in **February, 1848**, by which New Mexico and California were ceded to the United States, and the Rio Grande became the southern boundary of Texas. The United States paid Mexico \$15,000,000 and agreed to settle all her debts due to American citizens. This amounted to \$3,250,000 more, making in all \$18,250,000 paid for over a half-million square miles.

This cession of Mexican territory, together with a strip of land south of New Mexico bought by the United States in 1853 for ten million dollars, which was known as "The Gadsden Purchase," practically established the present boundary lines of the United States.

By treaty, trade, and war we had gained a million and a quarter square miles and had extended our territory to the Pacific Ocean.

While the war was in progress it became evident that new territory would be added to our domain. The question of slavery in this territory was already one of deep interest and heated debates. Naturally the Free States were lining up in opposition to an extension of slavery, and even the abolition of slavery altogether was becoming an issue.

In 1846 David Wilmot, a Congressman from Pennsylvania, introduced a bill in Congress providing that slavery should be prohibited in all territory to be acquired from Mexico. This was known as the "**Wilmot Proviso**." The measure failed to become a law, but it showed the issue on which great political parties were to form and a great struggle was to occur in the future.

5. THE NATION IN 1850

The nation continued to grow steadily. The first census, taken in 1790, showed a population of four million people. The census of 1850 showed twenty-three million people. Foreign immigration continued in ever-increasing numbers. In one year three hundred thousand foreigners came to America.

In 1846, the Irish, compelled by famine and distress, began coming to America, settling mainly in the Eastern cities, where they became a factor in the industrial and political life of those cities. The Germans, as a result of a revolution in their own country in 1848, came to America in large numbers, many of them moving West or Northwest to engage in agricultural pursuits and building up communities of their own people. There were also English, Welsh, French, and Swiss, seeking homes in this growing and prosperous country.

It was a notable fact that the foreign immigrants settled in the Northwest, and but few of them settled in the South. Free labor did not desire to come into competition with slave labor, and the slaveholders did not encourage immigration, for they feared it would weaken the institution of slavery. The result was that the people of the Southern States were mainly native-born Americans and slaves, while the North and West contained people from many nations of Europe.

The cities showed a great increase in population. New York now had a half million people; Philadelphia had four hundred thousand. Baltimore, New Orleans, Boston, and Cincinnati had each over a hundred thousand. The tide of immigration flowing westward was building up that section of our country. Chicago had grown

Growth of
the cities

to over thirty thousand people. Milwaukee was now a prosperous city. St. Paul and Kansas City had made a beginning, though many of the other cities of the West so well known today had not yet been settled, or else were mere groups of hamlets too small to appear on the map.

The large cities showed many improvements in comfort and convenience. The principal streets were paved with stone or brick and lighted with gas. Fire engines were used in place of the old hand buckets of former days. Horse cars and omnibuses came into use. Waterworks and sewerage added to the comforts and safety of city life.

As population increased and wealth accumulated the cities gradually took on the appearance they have at the present day. Theaters, parks, tall buildings, splendid churches, large stores, and other evidences of prosperity showed the increasing size and attractiveness of American cities.

Manufactures and commerce were rapidly increasing. In New England and the Middle States manufacturing had become a great industry. The West and North-
west were mainly agricultural, while in the South
cotton-growing was almost the sole occupation of
the people. Shipping had rapidly grown to great proportions. In 1838 steamships began to ply regularly across the Atlantic, carrying the American flag into every part of the world. American-built clipper ships were noted for their speed and for the skill of their navigators, though they were wooden ships and driven entirely by wind.

The wealth of the South seemed on a firm basis. There was apparently an unlimited demand for cotton by the mills of New England and Europe. In 1850 the cotton
crop amounted to two and a quarter million
bales, valued at one hundred million dollars. The value of

Manufactures
and
commerce

Wealth of
the South

the cotton exports was larger than that of all other exports combined.

On the great plantations of the South owned by comparatively a small part of the total population, thousands of slaves labored to produce the staple that was so much needed by the mills of the world, and which was not produced anywhere else in such abundance and of such quality.

The great public school systems of the country were making rapid progress by the middle of the century. The Northern States were especially active in the improvement of their schools. In 1837 Massachusetts created a State board of education with Horace Mann as secretary. The old district school teachers did not meet the needs of the people. Mann traveled and spoke and wrote and brought about many reforms. He was in office for ten years, and when he retired there were trained superintendents in every town. Normal schools were established, appropriations were increased, and the old school term was lengthened to six months. The school system of Massachusetts became a powerful means for the building up of the character and energy of the people.

In a few years the public school systems of New York, Pennsylvania, and New Jersey were established. In the Western States public education secured a vigorous position by liberal grants of land by the National government, by the presence of many immigrants from New England, and by the general idea that good schools attract a desirable population.

In the Southern States the private school still held its influence, where the wealthy sent their children to school. The free schools were patronized largely by the poor and ran for a short term. Texas made liberal land grants to her school system, and Tennessee and Florida received lands for educational purposes from the

**Private
schools and
academies**

Federal government. It was not until after the Civil War however that the Southern States established a satisfactory school system.

The growth of academies was most noticeable. In 1850 there were over six thousand academies in the United States, with over a quarter of a million students. From 1820 to 1860 there were one hundred and seventy-four colleges and universities established, of which nearly one-third were in the Southern States. State universities began to take form and attract public attention. The University of Virginia opened its doors in 1825 and became an influential factor in Southern higher education.

Up to this time but little attention was paid to the higher education of women, or their rights to have property, or to vote. The public schools were opened to girls, but the academies and colleges generally were closed to them. For a long time it was not thought necessary or advisable to give women equal educational advantages with men.

However, a change of sentiment occurred and colleges began to admit women. In 1833 Oberlin College opened its doors to women. In 1840, the Georgia Education of Female College graduated its first class of young women. Even up to 1860 there were only a few colleges in the whole country that admitted women to their classes or gave them diplomas. At the present day there are hundreds of such institutions and women now have every educational advantage.

The spread of educational influence was followed by other reforms. The misuse of spirituous liquors attracted the attention of the reformers. Early in the century drinking was very general among all classes, but temperance societies began to be formed in 1825 and in five

years there were more than a thousand in existence. Preachers of temperance went into every part of the country forming societies. Soon the agitation took the form of proposed prohibition of the sale and manufacture of liquors. In 1851 Maine passed a prohibition law, that State being the first to commit itself to State-wide prohibition.

The improvements in education, and the rapid increase in population and wealth, and the movement of the people to the West caused a large increase in newspapers, books, magazines, and other means for keeping the people informed. Instead of the old hand press of early days by which only a few hundred papers could be printed in an hour, the large newspapers began using a rotary press driven by steam power, turning out many thousand copies an hour.

Up to this time the cost of postage for carrying letters and papers was so high that few people could afford to write many letters. In 1850 the rate for letters weighing a half ounce or less was five cents for every three hundred miles or less; over three hundred miles ten cents, and to the Pacific Coast by way of Panama, forty cents. In 1851 the rate was made three cents for any distance up to three thousand miles, and six cents for more than that distance. This rate continued up to 1883, when a rate of two cents on letters was made. Postage stamps and envelopes also came into use about the middle of the century.

6. IMPROVEMENTS AND INVENTIONS

There was a great increase of inventions and improvements about this time. The inventive genius of the American mind responded promptly to all the demands that the progress of the country made upon it.

Among the most useful of these inventions was the harvesting machine, which was made in 1832 by Cyrus Hall McCormick, a native of Virginia. Up to that time hay and grain were cut with scythes, and raked by hand. Cutting and raking one acre of grain a day was a man's work. McCormick worked on his harvester for many years before it was a success. When it was completed it could do in a half hour what it had taken a whole day to do by hand labor.



A MODERN HARVESTING MACHINE DRAWN BY A TRACTOR

In 1851 he exhibited his invention at the World's Fair in London. The newspapers made great sport of it, saying it resembled a combination of a circus chariot, a McCormick's wheelbarrow, and a flying machine. When harvesting machine McCormick took his harvester into the fields and the people saw it move through the grain, doing the work of a dozen men, the newspapers changed their comment, and declared it was worth to the farmers of England the cost of the whole Fair.

Along with the harvester came the threshing machine for

separating the chaff from the kernel. Before that time grain had to be beaten out of the hull by flails. The threshing machine could thresh in an hour as much grain as a man could beat out by flails in a week.

At the same time there came improved machinery for plowing and cultivating the soil, and horse-drawn farm implements of all kinds, simplifying the labor of the farmer and increasing his crops. These inventions did for the West what the cotton gin did for the South. They established a great industry for the people and made the Western country the granary of the world.

Among the notable inventions of the time, and among the greatest of all, was the electric telegraph. It was invented by Samuel F. B. Morse, of Massachusetts. Morse was a painter as well as a scientist, and had traveled extensively abroad. As he was returning to America, he and some friends on the ship were discussing the subject of electricity, and how a current gave out a spark over a great length of wire.

It occurred to Morse that the sparks made by the current could be utilized to convey messages. On the voyage he worked out his scheme of the magnetic electric telegraph, and wrote an alphabet of dots and dashes that has ever since been known as the "Morse alphabet."

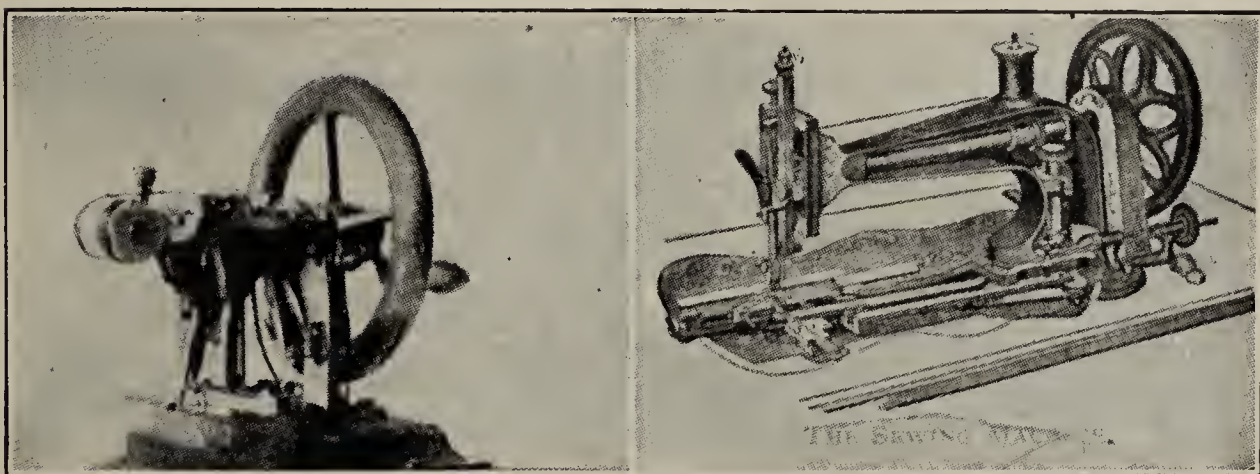
After many years of experimenting he perfected his invention. He then applied to Congress for an appropriation to build a telegraph line between Washington and Baltimore. The application seemed hopeless for a long time, but at the last hours of the session a bill was passed appropriating \$30,000.

With this Morse began to build his line. At first he undertook to lay the wires underground in pipes, but he soon changed this and placed them on poles, using glass insulators. In

1844 about twenty-two miles were completed from Washington. The National Whig Convention for nominating a candidate for the Presidency was in session in Baltimore. The Convention had nominated Henry Clay of Kentucky, and the train started to Washington with the news.

Building the
telegraph
lines

When the train reached the telegraph line the news was at once sent into Washington over the wires. It was the first news ever sent by telegraph, and greatly astonished and



THE FIRST MODEL

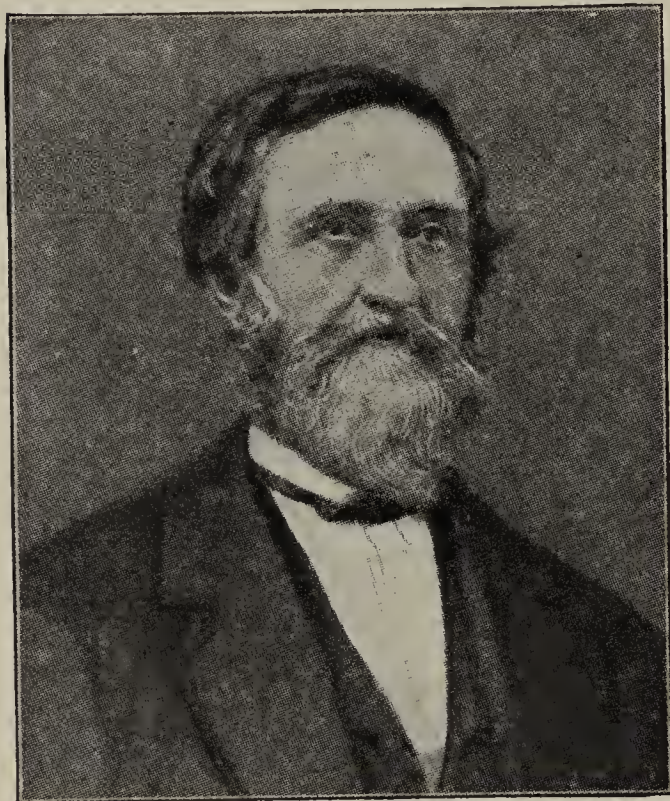
THE PRESENT-DAY MODEL

THE SEWING MACHINE

delighted the people. When the line was entirely completed, the first message was a quotation from the Bible: "What hath God wrought." The first news over the completed line was the message announcing the nomination of James K. Polk as candidate of the Democratic party for the Presidency.

Morse lived to see thousands of miles of electric telegraph in operation. Great cables have since been laid under the oceans, connecting the continents, so that a message can be sent around the world in an incredibly short time. In the United States alone there are probably a million miles of telegraph wire.

In 1846 Elias Howe, of Massachusetts, patented the first practical sewing machine, which revolutionized the dress-making and clothing industries, and lightened the labors of women throughout the world. Sewing machines are now made in hundreds of varieties for all kinds of industries. There are sewing machines for the finest embroidery, for making buttonholes, and sewing on buttons, for sewing carpet strips together, for stitching leather, and



DR. CRAWFORD W. LONG

special machines for stitching books, umbrellas, and brooms. Few inventions have brought greater relief from bodily fatigue than the sewing machine.

Charles Goodyear made possible the wonderful development of the rubber industry. In 1839, after years of effort and experiment, in the greatest poverty, he discovered that rubber mixed with sulphur and

heated to the melting point is not subject to the changes of weather.

Before that time an overshoe or a rubber coat would be stiff as a board in very cold weather, and become soft and sticky on a hot day. His discovery and processes made possible all the rubber coats, overshoes, automobile tires, and the hundreds of other applications of rubber to our comfort and convenience.

Before 1842 no surgical operation could be performed without pain to the patient. No matter how great the agony there was nothing to relieve his suffering. Many **Painless** operations were impossible because they were too **surgery** painful to be endured. In 1842 Dr. Crawford W. Long, of Georgia, accidentally discovered that the vapor of sulphuric ether deadened all sensations of pain to one who had inhaled it. In the same year he performed three operations, his patients being under the influence of ether and insensible to pain.

In 1844 Dr. Wells, a dentist of Hartford, Connecticut, used laughing gas to extract teeth painlessly. In 1846 Dr. Morton, a Boston dentist, brought ether into general notice, and two years afterwards the anesthetic value of chloroform was discovered by a Scotch physician. Now there are thousands of operations daily, of the most delicate kind, and the patients sleep quietly and painlessly while the physicians are at work.

In 1837 friction matches came into use, taking the place of the steel and flint and other old methods of making fire; in 1839 Ericsson designed the screw propeller, greatly **Other** increasing the speed of steamships; in 1846 **inventions** Richard M. Hoe, of New York, invented the rotary printing press, which perfected up to the present time can print, cut, paste, and fold one hundred thousand papers in an hour.

About the same time there came inventions for the manufacture of paper, penknives, platform scales, cooking stoves, coal stoves, and many other articles for facilitating business and increasing the comforts of home.

In 1839 an enterprising young man of the name of Harn-den started the express business between New York and Boston. The business was so small at first that he carried all

the parcels in a small bag or valise. The venture grew to large proportions, and express companies were organized with the result that in a short while packages could be sent to all parts of the United States.

Inventions could be protected by patents and most of them were. In 1790 Congress provided for patents, giving inventors exclusive right to manufacture and sell their inventions for a period of fourteen years, now extended to seventeen years, with the right of renewal. During the first fifty years nearly forty thousand patents were issued. By 1850 the number was increasing at the rate of a thousand a year, and in 1860 nearly five thousand patents were issued.

Thus we see the country growing in area, population, wealth, and industry. In spite of sectional differences and discords, the great nation was moving rapidly forward to take its place as one of the great powers of the world.

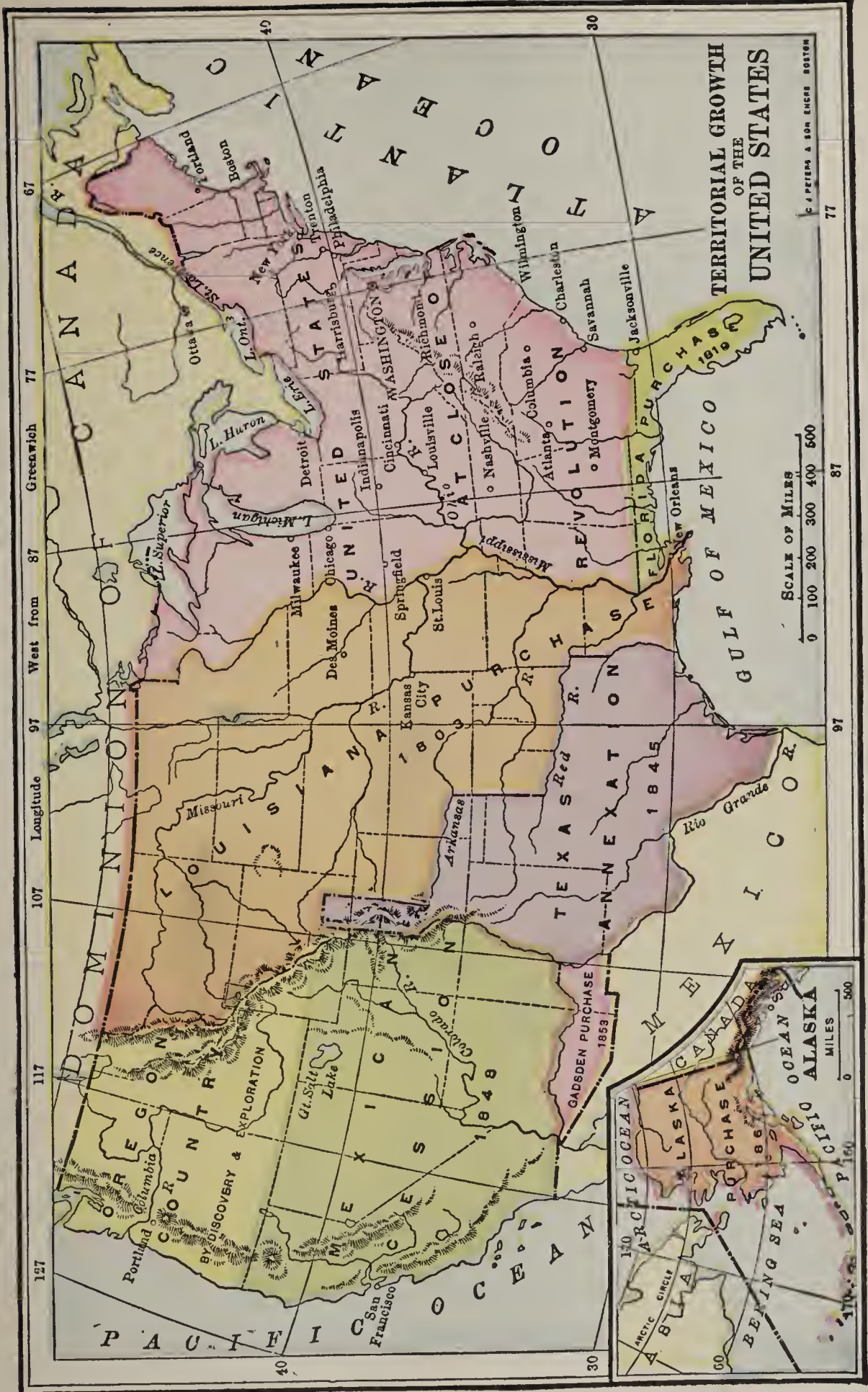
7. OPENING THE NEW TERRITORY

The territory we had gained from Mexico was already well known to Americans. Explorers had searched every part of it. Hunters, trappers, and traders had crossed the plains, explored the rivers, and found their way over the mountain passes.

A long trail for wagon trains had been opened into Oregon and New Mexico, along which caravans of wagons wound their way, protected from the Indians by bands of brave and hardy men.

By the time we had acquired the Western territory the Mormons had settled in what is now Utah. They had come from Illinois in a long and tedious journey of fifteen hundred miles, and founded a city on Great Salt Lake. Water was brought in long ditches from the

The Mormons



**TERRITORIAL GROWTH
OF THE
UNITED STATES**

C. J. PETERMAN & SON ENGRAVERS BOSTON

77

127 117 107 97 87 77 67
Longitude
West from Greenwich

SCALE OF MILES
0 100 200 300 400 500

87



SCALE OF MILES
0 100 200 300 400 500

150

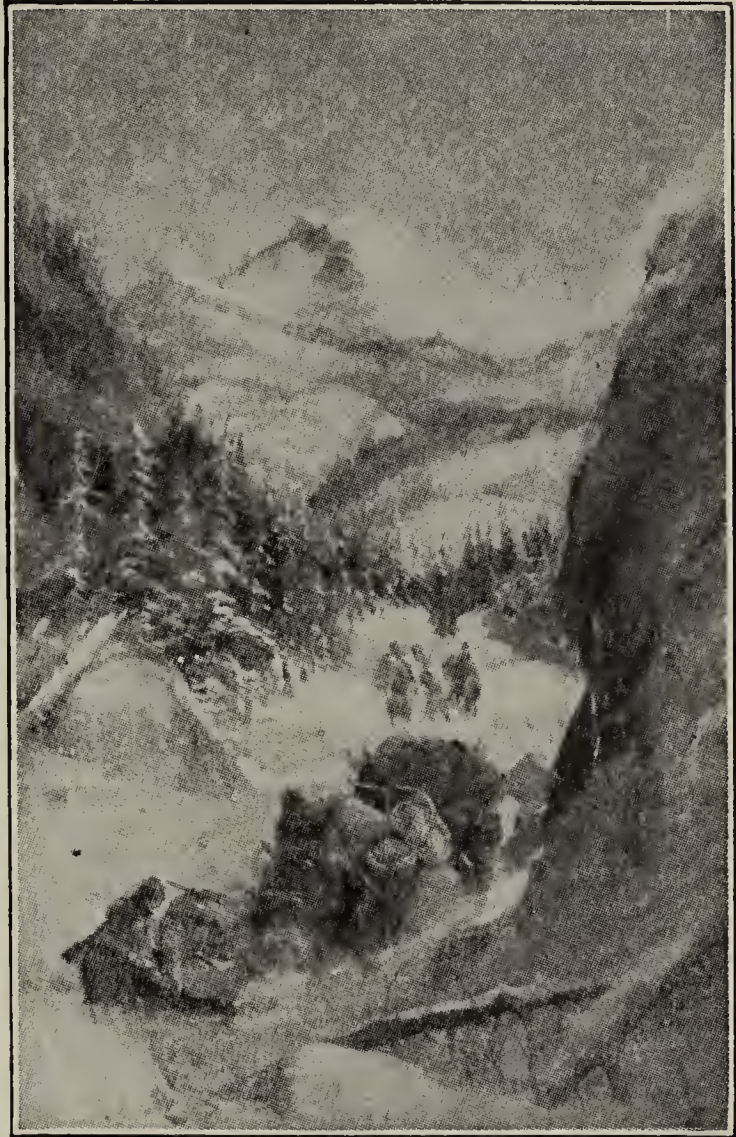
mountains to water the fields. Like the Indians, they built their houses of adobe. By hard work they made an arid plain rich with growing crops, covered with grass, and filled with cattle. They changed a desert into a blooming garden.

Many bold frontiersmen were finding their way across the country or by water to California. The fertile soil and the fine climate of the Pacific slope were well known in the East, and the settler's cabin was found in many places beyond the Rocky Mountains.

The cabins and settlements, however, were far apart. The Indians still had villages in the forests, and vast herds of buffaloes fed on the rich grass of the plains.

The journey of three thousand miles across the continent took many weary weeks, and it called for a stout heart in those days to brave its perils and dangers.

Among those who went to California was Captain Sutter. He had come from Missouri in 1838, and built a fort on the American River where the city of Sacramento now stands.



IT TOOK A BOLD HEART TO CROSS THE ROCKY MOUNTAINS IN THE EARLY DAYS

He started a sawmill about fifty miles above his fort. In **January, 1848**, one of the men who were working for him saw **Discovery of gold** some shining particles in the mud of the mill race. He picked them up carefully, thinking they might be gold.

Making a package of the pieces of metal, he mounted his horse and rode in haste to Sutter's fort. Here he and Captain Sutter shut themselves in a room and examined the particles carefully. Sure enough, they were gold! The secret could not be kept. The men at the mill found it out, then everybody knew it, and the people went wild.

Then followed a mad rush for the gold fields. Merchants, farmers, lawyers, doctors, soldiers, and sailors dropped their ordinary affairs and began digging for gold. **Gold digging** Everybody who could get a spade and a pan was searching the streams and the mountain sides, spading the earth, washing out dirt in the pans, and staking off claims.

Most extravagant stories were told of men who made a hundred dollars a day, of those who found nuggets of great value, and of fortunes made in a week. Prices went bounding. A barrel of flour cost fifty dollars, and a spade cost ten. Nobody cared, since wealth seemed to be in easy reach of every miner.

In a short while gold was discovered in other places. The news reached the East early in **1849**, and a mad rush for **"The Forty-niners"** California began. The "gold fever," as it was called, broke out, and thousands of people started for the West. Some went by sea around Cape Horn, or across the Isthmus of Panama. Many more went by the long journey overland. Those who went West at that time were called "Forty-niners."

Usually the caravans started from St. Louis in the spring in order to get good weather, and grass for the teams. Like colonies of ants the long wagon trains wound over the roads across the continent, enduring the dreary deserts, climbing the mountains, carrying their weary but hopeful freight of human souls on the long quest for gold.

The experience of many was most unhappy. Hundreds died of sickness and starvation on the way. The long trail



TO CROSS THE PLAINS TO CALIFORNIA WAS A WEARY JOURNEY OF THREE THOUSAND MILES BESET WITH MANY DANGERS

across the plains was marked by skeletons of horses and oxen that had perished, by abandoned wagons, and by boxes and household goods that had been thrown away.

A steady stream poured into California. San Francisco sprang into a town of twenty thousand people. In one year a hundred thousand people moved into California, coming from all sections of the country, North as well as South, and from nearly all parts of the world.

Rich as were the gold fields, there were other treasures in California. Its orange groves, vineyards, fine fields for

cattle, and rich valleys for grain soon made occupation for its crowding population. Life at first was rude in the camps of the miners, and every man was his own protector. Out of the disorder, however, a State was organized in 1849, and a constitution was adopted that forbade the holding of slaves. California then applied for admission to the Union.

California
applies for
admission

In the meantime Iowa had been admitted to the Union in 1846 and Wisconsin in 1848, both as Free States. This made the number of states thirty, evenly divided between Free States and Slave States.

8. THE QUESTION OF SLAVERY

General Zachary Taylor, of Louisiana, became President in 1849. He was in office a little over a year when he died of fever and was succeeded by the Vice-President, Millard Fillmore, of New York.

The times were filled with discussions of slavery, especially as it concerned California and other States and Territories to be made out of the land acquired from Mexico.

From now on, the question of slavery occupied the public mind. Slaveholding had been gradually abolished in the North, and by this time was confined to the Southern States. Cotton raising, tobacco planting, and sugar making were so suitable for slave labor, that the South felt bound to slavery on account of its industries.

Not everybody in the South was a slave owner, probably not more than one-third of the people. Some had a few slaves only, but on the large plantations there were often hundreds belonging to one master. The slaves had originally come from Africa, where they were savages. They were kidnapped, or bought from the savage

The slaves

chiefs, and brought in slave ships to America to be sold to the slave dealers. Since 1808 there had come no more slave ships, except as smugglers, so that by 1850 most of the slaves had been born in the South.

The condition of the slaves generally was not a hard one. They were well cared for, with good cabins to live in and plenty to eat. All day they worked in the fields, and at



AN OLD SLAVE MARKET, IN LOUISVILLE, GEORGIA, ONCE THE PLACE WHERE SLAVES WERE BOUGHT AND SOLD BY AUCTION

night sang their songs around the fires in the negro quarters. For generations they had known no other condition, and most of them were content to remain as they had been born.

A real affection existed between the master and his slave. They had often played together as boys, hunted and fished together, and grown up side by side. Sometimes slave families were never sold, but lived on the same farm for generations. Never before in history did so tender a feeling exist between slaves and those who held them in bondage.

A slave, however, was property. He could be bought or sold like any commodity. An able-bodied slave was worth a thousand dollars or more. A runaway slave could be caught and brought back to his master. He could not leave his master's place without permission, nor marry without his master's consent.

Of course, there were cruel masters, as there are cruel fathers, but these were exceptions. When the slaves did fall into their hands they were hard driven, severely punished, poorly cared for, and families were separated by being sold apart. However, it was for the planter's interest to treat his slaves well. The State laws forbade cruelty, and public opinion was against the man who treated his slaves badly.

The negro, however, was a human being; and there were many people in the South, and many more in the North, who thought slavery was a calamity and a great moral wrong. There was a determined opinion in the North that it should not be allowed to spread beyond the States in which it already existed. Some bold advocates declared it should cease everywhere.

In 1831 William Lloyd Garrison started an abolition paper in Boston, called *The Liberator*. He was violent in his denunciation of slavery and said that if the Constitution upheld slavery it was "a covenant with death, and an agreement with hell." Even in Boston he was denounced as a fanatic and came very near being mobbed on the streets.

Abolition societies were formed throughout the North. Their purpose was to bring about in various ways the emancipation of the slaves. Antislavery meetings were held in the Northern States. Speeches were

made that drew the darkest pictures of the evils of slavery. A flood of literature on the subject was sent broadcast over the land. In many places the meetings were broken up by the authorities, but the sentiment against slavery grew steadily, and the abolitionists increased in number.

Thus matters stood when California was opened in 1849. To that country rushed people from the South with slavery ideas, and people from the North with antislavery ideas.

The Free States and the Slave States had long been jealous of one another. For many years it had been the practice to admit one or two Free States and then one or two Slave States to the Union, thus keeping the number equal. There were, in 1850, fifteen States of each kind. If California were admitted without slavery it would give the Free States the majority, without any immediate prospect of a Slave State to balance it.

The South lined up in opposition to the admission of California. A part of it was above and a part of it below the line of $36^{\circ} 30'$ agreed upon in the Missouri Compromise. President Taylor, though a slaveholder, favored its admission. The Northern States generally approved it. The Southern statesmen almost unanimously opposed it.

There were other irritating issues. There was the question of the slave trade in the District of Columbia. Members of Congress declared that from their seats they could hear the cries of the slave markets and the voice of the auctioneers offering negroes for sale. The North demanded that this should cease.

Then there was the further question of the return of fugitive slaves who had escaped from a Slave State into a Free State. The South complained that the Northern people not only did not obey the laws and return

Slave trade

Fugitive
Slave law

the fugitive slaves, but actually helped them to escape, and hid them from their masters.

Thus there were complaints on both sides, and grievances to be cured. The debates in Congress were long and stormy. Henry Clay, now seventy-two years of age, had returned to the Senate after seven years of absence. He had lost none of his eloquence. He now exerted all his powers to prevent a breaking up of the Union by proposing a compromise. It was his last act as a peacemaker.

He proposed that California should be admitted as a Free State; that the slave trade should be abolished in the District of Columbia; that more stringent laws should be passed for the return of fugitive slaves; and that the question of slavery in all the rest of the new territory should be left for the people themselves to settle. This proposition was known as the "Compromise of 1850." The bill was called the Omnibus Bill on account of the many provisions it contained.

A debate of many months followed. Clay spoke for two days in earnest pleading for the compromise. Calhoun, too ill to speak, left his sick bed and had his speech opposing it read to the Senate. He died a few weeks later, saying, "The South! The South! God knows what will become of her!"

Daniel Webster joined Clay in urging the compromise. He feared that the quarrels were endangering the Union. It was in the same debate that William H. Seward, of New York, spoke of a "higher law than the Constitution," meaning a moral law that ought to liberate the slaves.

The compromise was at last agreed upon, and laws were passed to make it effective. Everybody accepted it as final, but we shall see that peace was of short duration.

The new Fugitive Slave law was not easily enforced. Some

Northern States passed "personal liberty laws" to protect the slaves and prevent their return to their masters. When a slave owner attempted to get back his fugitive slaves there was often a riot. Rescues occurred in many places. The people would not return the fugitives.

Personal
liberty laws

Many persons in the North banded together to pass slaves on from one house to another, hiding them by day and helping them by night until they were landed in Canada. This came to be known as the "underground railway." In this way hundreds and possibly thousands of slaves escaped from their masters and were aided to get beyond reach.

Underground
railway

To make matters worse, in 1852 Mrs. Harriet Beecher Stowe wrote "Uncle Tom's Cabin." It was a thrilling and pathetic story of what might happen to all slaves, and what did happen to some of them. A half million copies were sold. It was translated into many foreign languages, and all the world was reading of slavery.

"Uncle
Tom's
Cabin"

The South declared that the story was a decided exaggeration of the facts and that it did the people a great injustice. At any rate, the book was a powerful means of arousing the North against slavery. It can readily be seen that all these things were making the two sections of our country most unfriendly to each other.

9. THE WAR CLOUDS GATHER

Clay and Webster died in 1852, within a few months of each other. Calhoun had died two years before. The death of these three famous statesmen, who had been the leaders in the debates over mighty issues for forty years, and each of

whom had hoped in vain to be President, left the arena for other combatants.

The Whig party lost much of its power after the death of its two leaders, Clay and Webster. Other parties came **New political parties** into existence. The Free Soil party arose, opposed to the existence of slavery in the Territories. The American party was formed on the platform of "None but Americans must rule America." This party was at first a secret order, whose members replied to all questions about the party by saying, "I do not know." Hence they were called "Know-Nothings."

The leading party was the Democratic party. The country placed great confidence in its pledges for peace on the basis of the Compromise of 1850. Franklin Pierce, of New Hampshire, the Democratic candidate, was overwhelmingly elected President in 1852.

We have already seen that the Compromise of 1850 left the people of the Territories of New Mexico and Utah to decide **Squatter Sovereignty** the question of slavery for themselves. This plan of leaving it to the people was called "Squatter Sovereignty," on the idea that those who settled a country had a sovereign right to decide certain matters for themselves. The leading advocate of this plan was Senator Stephen A. Douglas, of Illinois.

It will also be remembered that the Missouri Compromise forbade slavery above the line $36^{\circ} 30'$. This line ran through **Kansas-Nebraska Bill** the new Territory. Since the people in New Mexico and Utah were to decide the question of slavery for themselves, Senator Douglas proposed that all the people of the new Territory in the West should have the same privilege. Hence he introduced a bill organizing the Territories of Kansas and Nebraska, known as

the Kansas-Nebraska Bill, leaving the people of the Territories to settle the question of slavery. It can be seen at once that this bill repealed the Missouri Compromise, since both these Territories were above the line agreed upon.

After a stormy debate the bill was passed and became a law. The people of the North protested against it, public meetings denounced it, and Douglas was hooted at on the streets and burned in effigy in many places.¹

In 1854 a mad race for Kansas began. Nebraska was too far north for slaves to be used with advantage, but Kansas was not. It was a struggle between the Slave States and the Free States for political control. **Race for Kansas**

Crowds of emigrants moved from the Slave State of Missouri and began settlements. Emigrant aid societies were organized in Boston and other places in the North to send Free-State voters to Nebraska and Kansas.

The struggle for possession of these Territories became of national importance. The slave owners of the South moved in as fast as they could, money was raised in the North, societies were organized, and every week saw bands of armed emigrants starting for the disputed ground to contest with the Slave States for its control.

Many of these emigrants were lawless men. Nearly all went armed and were ready for a desperate conflict. A conflict between the two factions was unavoidable. There were fighting and bloodshed in many places. The state of affairs is known as the "Kansas War." **Kansas War**

Each party proceeded to organize the Territory. There were two legislatures chosen by the rival parties. In four years Kansas had five governors, none of whom seemed able

¹ Douglas is reported to have said, "I could have traveled all the way from Boston to Chicago by the light of my own burning effigies."

to control the people. One after another they gave up in despair of success. The Territory was called "Bleeding Kansas."

This state of war and strife continued for five or six years, until finally the Free-State party was declared victorious. Kansas and Nebraska were both admitted to the Union as Free States.

These bitter struggles in the Territories and the attention they attracted everywhere increased the bad feeling between the Free States of the North and the Slave States of the South. The two sections of the country were drifting rapidly apart, and there seemed no hope of settling their differences.

In 1856 James Buchanan, of Pennsylvania, was elected President by the Democratic party. He was the last President to be elected by this party for twenty-five years. All other factions in the North had by this time united to compose the Republican party.

A few days after Buchanan had taken his seat the Supreme Court handed down its decision in the Dred Scott case.

Dred Scott was a negro slave. He had been taken by his master from the Slave State of Missouri to the Free State of Illinois. Here he had lived for two years. He was then carried to Minnesota, in which Territory Congress declared there should be no slaves. Scott was then taken back to Missouri, but claimed he was a free man because he had lived for some time on Free soil.

His case went to the Supreme Court and was argued by great lawyers with much learning. The Court decided that Scott, being a slave, was not an American citizen, and that he could not sue for his liberty.

It also gave an opinion that a slave owner could carry his slaves into any Territory in the same manner as he could any

other property, and that the slave could not be made free by going into a Free State or Territory. The Court also gave as its opinion that Congress had no right to prohibit slavery in the Territories. **Dred Scott decision**

This opinion was received by the North with great dismay. It was feared that not only the Territories, but even the Free States were open to an invasion by slave owners, and that there was no recourse in the law to prevent it.

The majority of the statesmen in the North did not believe that slavery could be legally abolished in the States where it already existed, but they did maintain that it could be legally confined to those States. The Dred Scott decision shattered their hopes and was a great source of irritation.

The people of the South, on their part, were startled by an attempt in **October, 1859**, to arouse the slaves of Virginia to insurrection. Among the most fanatical of all abolitionists was John Brown. He had gone to Kansas during the struggles there, and boldly declared that he was divinely inspired to free the slaves by any means whatsoever. He believed the way to free the slaves was to kill the slaveholders. During the struggles in Kansas he and his sons had actually killed in cold blood five or six advocates of slavery. **John Brown**

After he left Kansas he gathered a band of about twenty followers, went to Harper's Ferry in Virginia, and seized the arsenal. He stopped the railroad trains, captured several citizens, and called on the negroes to rise and arm themselves. To his surprise there was no response. On the other hand, the citizens gathered in great numbers, drove Brown and his party into the engine room of the armory, and held them at bay. Some of his followers tried to escape, but were killed or captured. **John Brown's raid**

In a short while Colonel Robert E. Lee arrived from Washington with a body of soldiers. Brown was overpowered, his two sons were killed, and his followers taken prisoners. In a short while Brown and his men were tried by the laws of Virginia, and were hanged for inciting an insurrection. This attempt was known as the "John Brown Raid."

The most serious aspect of John Brown's raid was the way it was considered by the people. At a few places in the North, on the day of his execution, religious services were held, bells were tolled, flags were lowered, and manifestations of public sorrow were made. He was declared a martyr who was persecuted for the cause of truth and right.

In the South there was quite a different feeling. He was denounced as an assassin who tried to arouse slaves to murder helpless women and children, and who richly deserved hanging for his atrocious crimes.

During this state of affairs, in 1860 the presidential election approached. The Republican party nominated Abraham Lincoln, of Illinois, for President. The Democratic party divided into two sections, one section nominating Stephen A. Douglas, of Illinois, and the other section nominating John C. Breckinridge, of Kentucky.

The election was along purely sectional lines. Lincoln carried every Free State but one, New Jersey, and was elected.

Election of Lincoln The South had divided its vote among other candidates. At last the party opposed to slavery had come into power, and it remained to be seen what the South would do under the circumstances.

TOPICS

Andrew Jackson Becomes President. Political parties at the time. Jackson's candidacy and election; his inauguration. Jackson rewards his friends; the "Spoils System." The United States Bank; Jackson's attack on the bank. Jackson vetoes bill for renewal of its charter. Removal of the deposits; pet banks. Era of speculation. Panic of 1837. The Seminoles in Florida; Osceola. Georgia and the removal of the Indians.

Disputes over the Tariff. Tariff for revenue; tariff for protection. Why the North desired a protective tariff; why the South desired a low tariff. The tariff of 1828; opposition in the South; reply of the Northern manufacturers. Hayne's argument; Webster's reply. Jackson's toast. Tariff of 1832; Calhoun's advice. Decision of South Carolina. Action of Jackson. His proclamation. The Force Bill. Clay's Compromise.

Annexation of Texas. Van Buren becomes President. Arkansas and Michigan admitted to the Union. Tippecanoe, and Tyler too. Hard cider campaign. Death of Harrison. Why Texas revolted from the rule of Mexico. Santa Anna at Goliad. Massacre at the Alamo. Battle of San Jacinto. Capture of Santa Anna. Texas admitted to the Union.

The Oregon Territory. War with Mexico. The Oregon Territory; "Fifty-four-forty — or fight." Division of Oregon; States formed out of Oregon Territory. Disputes between Texas and Mexico. War with Mexico declared. General Taylor and the battle of Buena Vista. Winfield Scott marches on Mexico. Officers with Scott. Siege and surrender of the City of Mexico. Treaty of peace and its provisions. The Gadsden Purchase. The Wilmot Proviso.

The Nation in 1850. Population. Foreign immigration; the Irish; the Germans. Why the immigrants avoided the South. Population of cities. Beginning of cities in the West. Improvements in the large cities. Industry of the sections; shipping. The cotton crop of the South. Public school progress. Horace Mann; his labors and his success. Establishment of public schools. Education in the South. Growth of academies, colleges, and universities. State universities. Higher education of women. Women's colleges. Temperance societies. Newspapers, books, and magazines. Postage rates.

Improvements and Inventions. The harvesting machine; sport made of the original design. The threshing machine; other improvements; effect upon the West. The electric telegraph; how the invention came about. Appropriation by Congress; building the lines; the first message; the first news. The sewing machine; its varieties and benefits. Charles Goodyear and the rubber industry. Painless surgery; Long, Wells, Morton. Matches; screw propeller; rotary printing press; other inventions. Beginnings of the express. Patents.

Opening the Territory. The territory gained from Mexico; caravan trails. The Mormons in Utah; their industry and prosperity. Frontiersmen on the Pacific slope; the journey across the continent. Sutter's sawmill; how gold was discovered. The rush to the gold fields; high prices; breaking out of the "gold fever"; "Forty-niners." Moving West to the gold fields. Growth of California; other treasures in California. California applies for admission to the Union. Iowa and Wisconsin admitted.

The Question of Slavery. Taylor and Fillmore. Discussion of slavery. Slavery confined to the South. Slaveholders; history of slave trade. Condition of the slaves; their work; their recreations; relation of master and slave. Slave property; occasional cruelty. Growth of antislavery sentiment. Contest over the admission of California. Slave trade in the District of Columbia. Fugitive Slave law. Clay's compromise. Webster and Calhoun. Personal Liberty laws. Underground railway. "Uncle Tom's Cabin."

The War Clouds Gather. Death of Clay, Webster, and Calhoun. New political parties. Franklin Pierce, President. Squatter sovereignty. Kansas-Nebraska Bill; the race for Kansas; the struggle for control; "Kansas War." Political feuds. Admission of Kansas and Nebraska as Free States. James Buchanan, President. The Dred Scott decision; effect of the decision on the North. The John Brown raid; fate of Brown. Effect upon the North and the South. Lincoln elected President.

SUBJECTS FOR STUDY

What are the arguments for and against the spoils system of rewarding political friends? What are the arguments for and against a protective tariff? Discuss the value of labor-saving inventions, and the use of improved machinery. What traits of character made for success among

the "Forty-niners"? What effect did slavery have upon the white population of the South?

COMPOSITION

Write the supposed story of an eyewitness to the massacre at the Alamo.

Suppose you were an immigrant in 1850 coming to America, and write your impressions and feelings.

Tell the story of a "Forty-niner," his journey and his success.

Write the supposed story of a runaway slave.

MAP STUDIES

Locate the disputed area between Texas and Mexico. Define the Oregon Territory. Locate the Gadsden Purchase. Define the route of travel of the gold seekers in 1849.

Collateral Reading. Hayne's speech and Webster's reply to Hayne on "The Foote Resolutions." "The Defense of the Alamo," by Joaquin Miller.

CHAPTER XI

THE CIVIL WAR

1. THE SOUTHERN STATES SECEDE

As soon as it was known that Lincoln had been elected President, a convention of delegates from all parts of South

CHARLESTON

MERCURY

EXTRA:

Passed unanimously at 1.15 o'clock, P. M., December 20th, 1860.

AN ORDINANCE

To dissolve the Union between the State of South Carolina and other States united with her under the compact entitled "The Constitution of the United States of America."

We, the People of the State of South Carolina, in Convention assembled, do declare and ordain, and it is hereby declared and ordained:

That the Ordinance adopted by us in Convention, on the twenty-third day of May, in the year of our Lord one thousand seven hundred and eighty-eight, whereby the Constitution of the United States of America was ratified, and also all Acts and parts of Acts of the General Assembly of this State, ratifying amendments of the said Constitution, are hereby repealed; and that the union now subsisting between South Carolina and other States, under the name of "The United States of America," is hereby dissolved.

NEWS OF SO. CAROLINA'S SECESSION

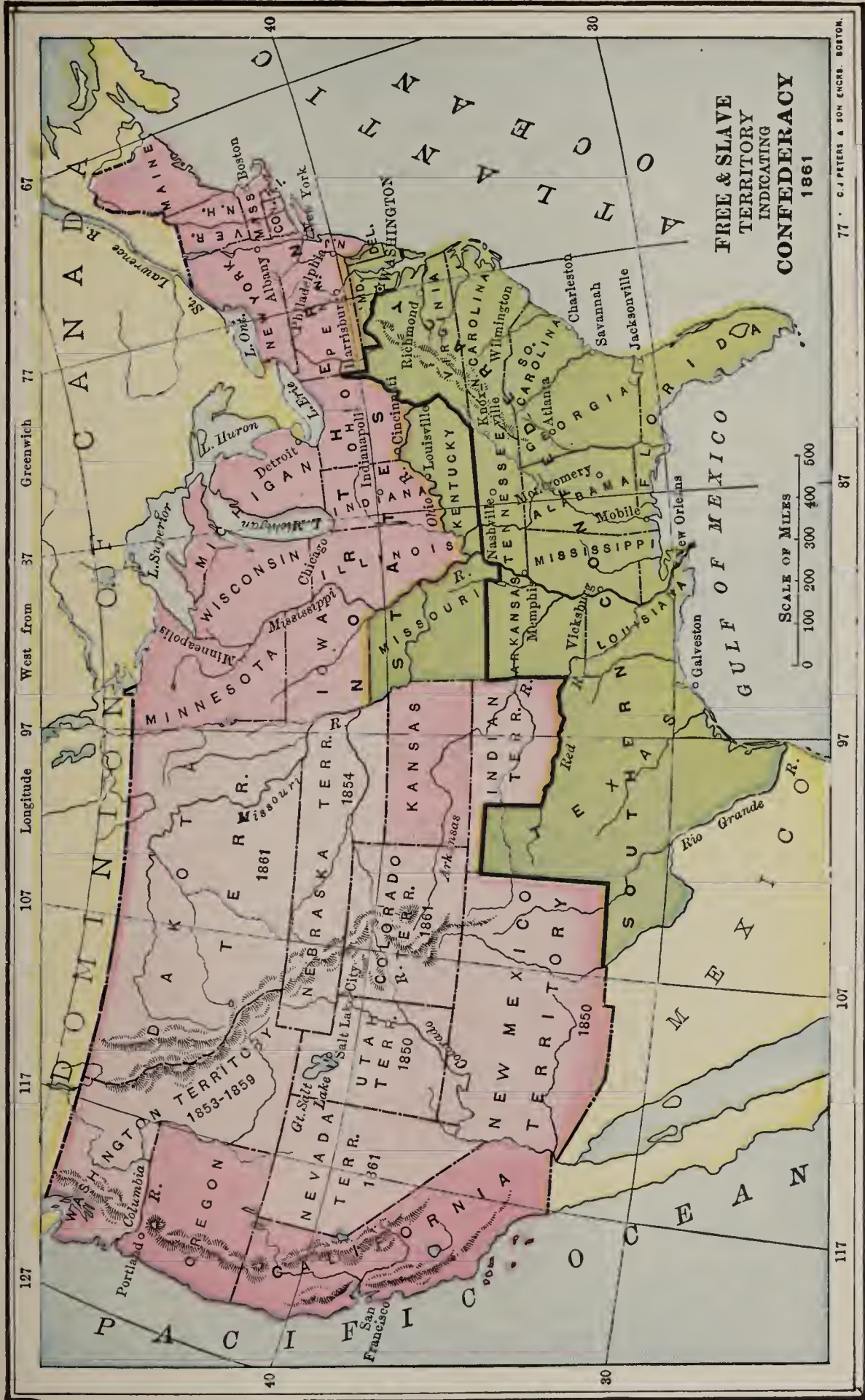
States that had withdrawn from the Union sent delegates to a convention in Montgomery, Alabama, and organized a government which they named "The Confederate States of America." They adopted a constitution and elected Jefferson Davis, of Mississippi, President and Alexander H. Stephens, of Georgia, Vice-President. In May of the same year the

Carolina met in Charleston, and on December 20, 1860, passed an "Ordinance of Secession," formally dissolving the union between that State and the United States of America.

Within six weeks Mississippi, Florida, Alabama, Georgia, Louisiana, and Texas had followed South Carolina. When the

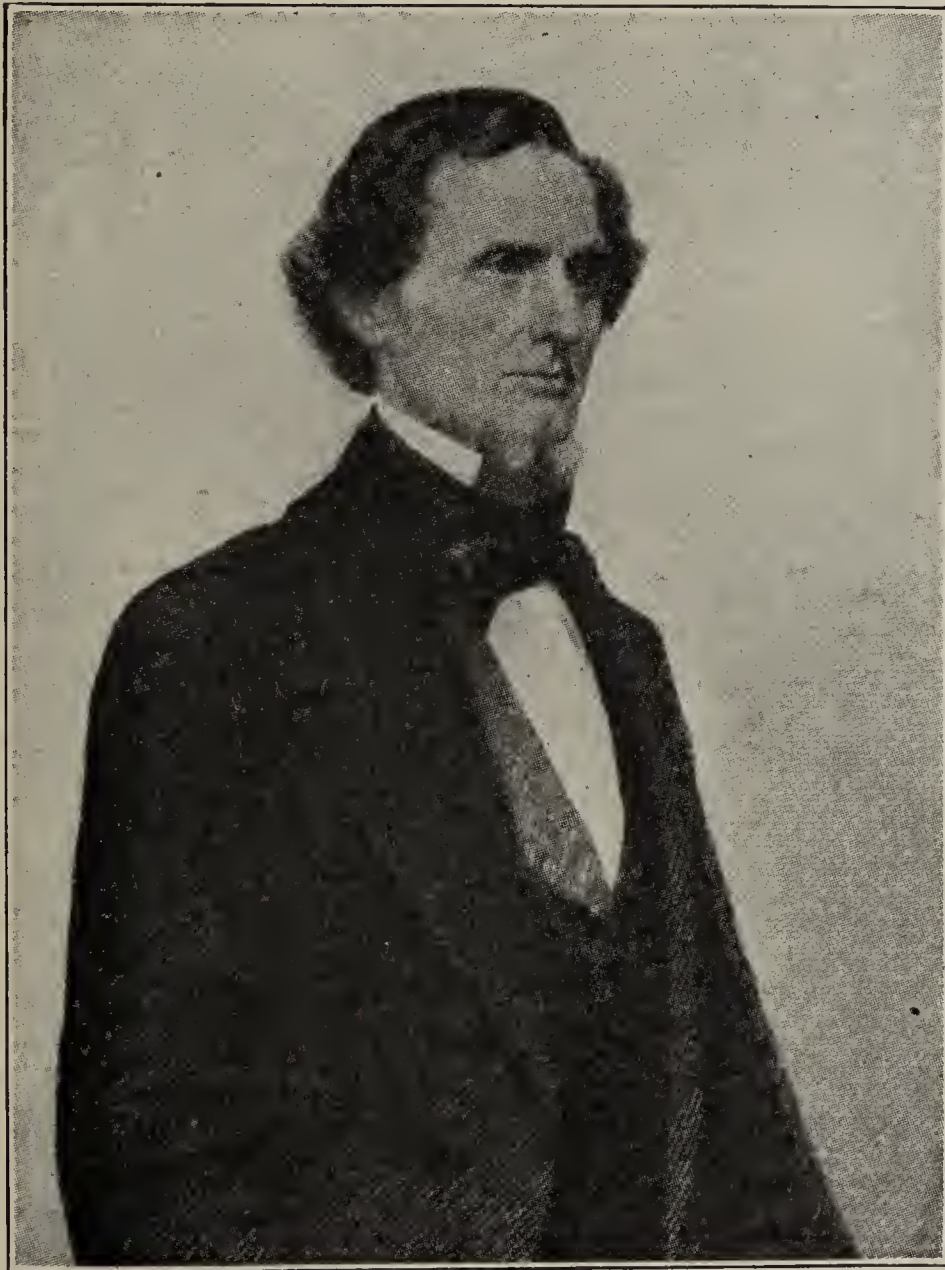
Organization of the Confederate States war began these States were joined by Virginia, North Carolina, Tennessee, and Arkansas.

February 4, 1861, the first seven



capital of the Confederacy was moved from Montgomery, its first location, to Richmond, Virginia.

The States, as they seceded, took possession of all government property in their territory, such as post offices, public



JEFFERSON DAVIS

buildings, forts, and arsenals. They did this on the ground that such public property had been built and paid for out of a common treasury, and the South was entitled to its share. They agreed, however, to settle with the United

States government on a fair basis, to be afterwards agreed upon.

Let us see the reason the South gave for leaving the Union. All the States had entered the Union of their own free will.

Reason for secession Each one had adopted the Constitution as an agreement to be lived up to and respected by all. In adopting the Constitution, Virginia, New York, and Rhode Island had expressly stated that they would withdraw whenever they found cause to do so. It was generally understood that if the Constitution were violated by any State, then the agreement did not hold the others and they had a right to withdraw from the Union.¹

This right had been asserted by other than the Southern States. During the War of 1812 the New England States made threats of secession. In 1844 the legislature of Massachusetts had resolved that the project of annexing Texas may "drive these States into a dissolution of the Union." The doctrine of secession was neither new nor strange.

What the South contended The South contended that the North was distinctly hostile to slavery, which was a right protected by the Constitution. The North had resisted the Fugitive Slave law, since many States had passed

¹ The following are opinions of some Northern statesmen on the right of the Southern States to secede:

"If the Northern States refuse willfully and deliberately to carry into effect that part of the Constitution which respects the restoration of fugitive slaves, and Congress provides no remedy, the South would no longer be bound to observe the compact. A bargain cannot be broken on one side and still bind the other side." — *Daniel Webster*.

"If the Cotton States shall decide that they can do better out of the Union, we insist on letting them go in peace. The right to secede may be a revolutionary one, but it exists nevertheless." — *Horace Greeley*.

"If a State should withdraw and resume her powers, I know of no remedy to prevent it." — *Chief Justice Chase*.

personal liberty bills protecting all escaped slaves. The North had resisted the Dred Scott decision, had objected to slavery in the Territories, and in many cases had approved the raid of John Brown.

In addition to all this the triumph of the Republican party and the election of Lincoln was a triumph of antislavery feeling. It was the setting of sentiment against the South, especially as Lincoln had said, "I believe this government cannot endure half slave and half free. I do not expect the house to fall, but I expect it will cease to be divided. It will become all one thing or all the other."

Before we go into the story of the war that was soon to burst upon the country, let us take a view of the two sections that stood so hostile to each other.

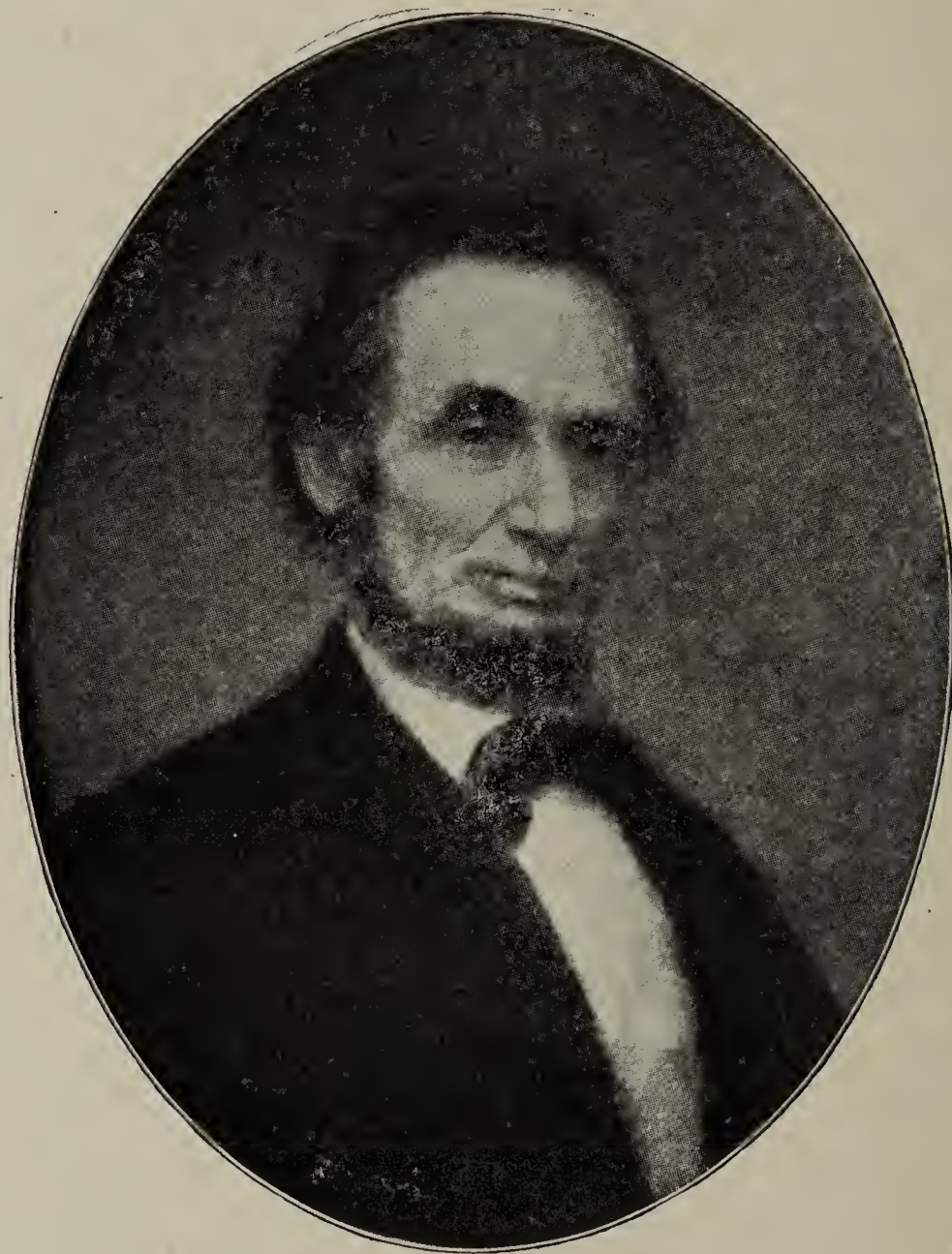
There were in 1861 thirty-four States in the Union. Of these eleven Southern States seceded, leaving twenty-three Northern States. The Northern States had a population of twenty-two million. The Southern States had a population of nine million of which over three and a half million were slaves. The South had about one-fourth the white population of the North.

Comparison
of the two
sections

The South was under the necessity of organizing an army and a navy, and establishing a government that should be recognized abroad. There were few machine shops in the South, and at first no powder mills or factories for making blankets, canteens, and other army supplies. These already existed in the North, which was the manufacturing section of the country.

The South had become more and more an agricultural section. The stream of immigration of foreign labor settled North or passed by the South on its way to the West. Foreign labor could not and would not compete with slavery.

The world understood that the South furnished little else than cotton, and needed no labor but slaves. Upon cotton the South based its hope for foreign recognition, since the mills



ABRAHAM LINCOLN

of Europe would be compelled to close if the supply was cut off. It was said, "Cotton is king." The South was to have the advantage of fighting upon its own soil, near its own fields and supplies, and in defense of its own cities and property.

In his inaugural address¹ President Lincoln declared the Southern States need have no fear of a Republican President. He stated that he had no purpose to interfere directly or indirectly with slavery in the States where it already existed, because he had no lawful right to do so. He believed the union of the States to be perpetual, and that no State could withdraw from the Union upon its own motion. He considered the Union, therefore, unbroken, and would continue to execute the laws in all the States, North and South.

Lincoln's
inaugural
speech

2. THE BEGINNING OF THE WAR

We are now to learn the story of the great war between the States, or the Civil War, as it is generally called. It is a sad story of many battles and of much bloodshed. It is an inspiring story of heroic men on both sides who fought, and many of whom died, for what they thought was right.

Nobody foresaw the four years of long and bitter struggle. In fact, everybody hoped there would be no war at all. The

¹ The opinions of Lincoln regarding the seceding States and his duty as President are fully expressed in his inaugural address, March 4, 1861. In that address he said :

“I hold that, in contemplation of universal law, and of the Constitution, the union of these States is perpetual.

“It follows from these views, that no State, upon its own mere motion, can lawfully get out of the Union; that *resolves* and *ordinances* to that effect are legally void.

“I therefore consider that, in view of the Constitution and the laws, the Union is unbroken; and to the extent of my ability, I shall take care, as the Constitution itself expressly enjoins upon me, that the laws of the Union be faithfully executed in all the States.

“The power confided to me will be used to hold, occupy, and possess the property and places belonging to the Government, and to collect the duties and imposts; but beyond what may be necessary for these objects, there will be no invasion, no using of force against or among the people anywhere.”

South wanted peaceable separation, and the North expected the seceding States to return to the Union.

Virginia proposed that a peace conference of all the States be held in Washington. Delegates from seven Southern States and fourteen Northern States met in Washington in **February, 1861**. After three weeks' discussion the conference agreed on recommendations to be made to Congress. These recommendations, however, were not accepted by that body.



GEN. P. G. T. BEAUREGARD

Before Lincoln had been inaugurated, South Carolina had sent three commissioners to Washington to treat with President Buchanan for the public property that had been seized in that State, and to arrange for a division of the public debt. The President sent them word he would meet them as private gentlemen, but would not see them as commissioners of a seceding State.

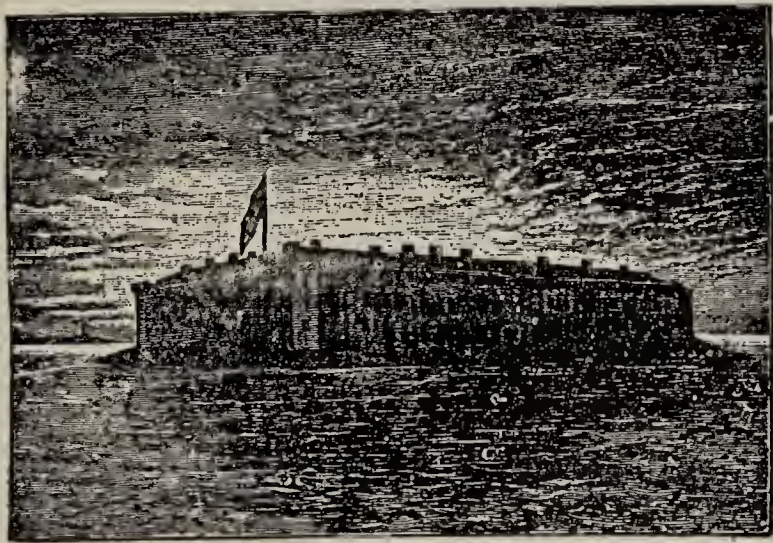
In the meantime Major Robert Anderson of the United States Army held Fort Sumter in Charleston Harbor. He had but a handful of men, and was preparing to defend his fort from an attack. Notice was given to the President of the United States that any attempt to reënforce this fort by sending armed men for its defense would be looked upon as an act of war.

Lincoln became President in **March, 1861**. In April, word was received by the Confederate government that a fleet had sailed from the North, with men and provisions, to strengthen Fort Sumter. The South accepted this as an act of hostility, and prepared to meet it. Beauregard, the

Confederate general, was ordered to demand the surrender of the fort. If the surrender was refused, he was to fire upon the fort and capture it before the fleet arrived. Major Anderson refused to surrender.

The fleet moved southward and soon came in sight of Charleston. Beauregard sent word to the fort that unless it surrendered at once he would open fire in an hour. The women and children had been removed from the fort to a place of safety, and preparations had been made for defense.

At four o'clock in the morning of **April 12, 1861**, the first gun of the war was fired from a Confederate battery. The shell rose high in the air and burst on the fort. **The** In a few minutes other guns opened. At seven **bombardment** o'clock the guns of Sumter began their reply. All day long and all the next night, for thirty-four hours the bombardment continued. On the second day the fort was almost in ruins, and fire was so near the magazine that the powder had to be thrown into the sea.



FORT SUMTER BOMBARDED, APRIL 12, 1861

Major Anderson, who had made a brave defense, now agreed to surrender the fort. The Stars and Stripes was lowered, and the Confederate flag was put in its place. Major Anderson was allowed to salute his flag with fifty guns, and with his troops was given transportation to New York.

Strangely enough, not a man had been killed in the bombardment. The bells of Charleston rang, the people shouted

and paraded the streets. The first guns of the war had sounded. Sumter had been fired upon to prevent reënforcement, and the whole country was wild with the exciting news.

The South declared the North had begun the war by sending a fleet of vessels, with men and ammunition, to reënforce Sumter. The North declared that the South had begun the war by firing the first gun. At any rate, the war was opened, and there was no longer a question of peace.

The people in the South who were opposed to secession at once accepted the situation and followed the fortunes of the Confederacy. Those in the North who were opposed to coercion left off their arguments. The flag had been fired upon. Henceforth there was talk of nothing else than war.

President Lincoln called for 75,000 volunteers to regain the forts and other public property that had been seized in the South. President Davis also called for volunteers to resist invasion. On both sides the response was overwhelming. The call to arms found a country eager for war. There were mustering of troops, organizing of companies, and drilling of soldiers going on everywhere. Both sides soon had armies in the field ready for the great struggle.

When the call for volunteers was made for the Northern army, the States of Virginia, North Carolina, Tennessee, and Arkansas decided to withdraw from the Union and join the Confederacy. This made eleven Confederate States in all. The capital had already been moved from Montgomery to Richmond. All eyes were turned toward Virginia as the ground for the first great battle of the war.

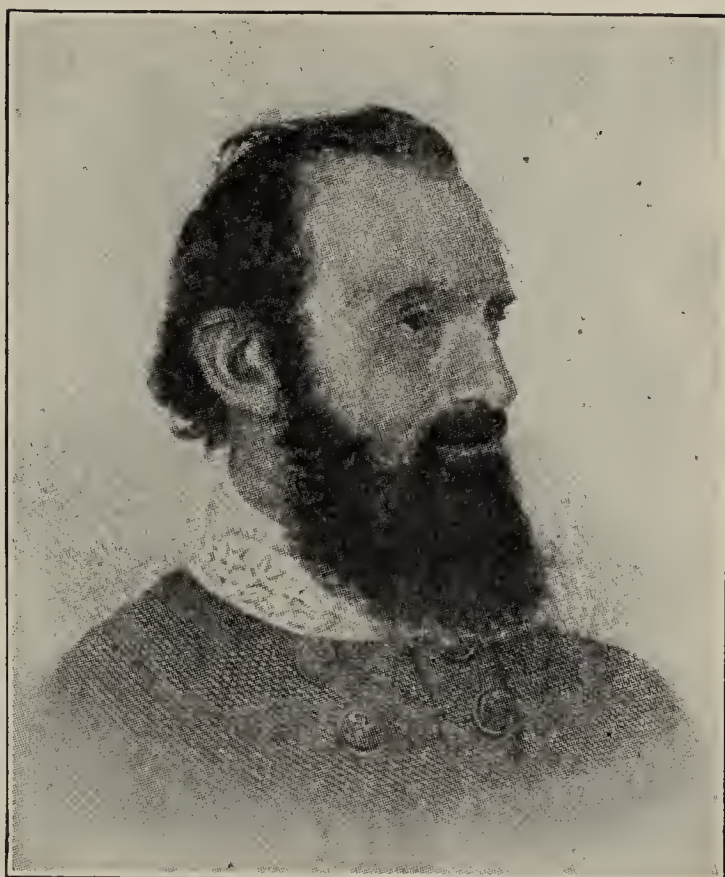
In July, 1861, the Northern army, sometimes called the Federal army, or the Union army, commanded by General

Irvin McDowell, moved out of Washington on its way to capture the Confederate capital. The cry was, "On to Richmond!" The North hoped to end the war by a "On to short and sharp campaign. Richmond!"

General Beauregard was at Manassas Junction in command of the Southern army. Word arrived that McDowell's army was on the march. General Joseph E. Johnston was at Winchester. The Confederate government telegraphed Johnston to move at once to the assistance of Beauregard. Johnston hastened to join Beauregard to help him give battle to the advancing Northern army.

On Sunday, July 21, the first battle of Man-

First battle assas, or
of Manassas Bull Run
or Bull Run as it is
otherwise known, be-
gan. At first the Con-



GEN. STONEWALL JACKSON

federates were driven slowly back, but were rallied on a hill, or plateau, by General Thomas J. Jackson. Here they firmly received the attack of the Northern troops. At a critical moment an officer rushed up to Jackson and said, "General, they are beating us back." "Then, sir," replied Jackson, "we will give them the bayonet." A few minutes later, seeing the troops around Jackson standing their ground so firmly, General Bee, a Confederate officer, called out to his own men,

“There stands Jackson like a stone wall.” Henceforth he was to be known in history as Stonewall Jackson.

After some hours of hard fighting on the plateau, fresh troops arrived to reënforce the Southern army. The Federals, thinking a new army had burst upon them, and worn out by the long day’s fighting, began to retreat.

Soon they began to run, and shortly the whole army was in a most disorderly rout. The soldiers broke ranks, and ran from the field in panic, nor could many of them be stopped until they were safe in Washington. In this way the first battle of Manassas was a great Confederate victory.

The news was received with great dismay in the North. It was clear that the war was not to be ended so easily, nor was it a holiday matter. With a deep and serious purpose the North began preparations on a large scale to carry on the war. Congress authorized the President to call for a half million soldiers, and arranged for a revenue of a million dollars a day to pay for the expenses of the war.

The South was not so prompt. The battle of Manassas had created a confidence in her power that was far from prudent. Many persons foolishly boasted that the war was over and there would be no more fighting. The Confederate Congress, however, put the South on a war footing, and authorized the enlistment of 400,000 soldiers for three years.

3. THE WAR IN THE WEST

The general war plan of the North was to move steadily against Richmond in Virginia and capture the Confederate capital; also to force a way down the Mississippi River, capture all the Confederate forts and posts,

gain the control of that river, and thus cut the Confederacy in two; then to move through the heart of the Southern States and end the war.

We have seen how the campaign opened in Virginia. Let us leave the armies resting there and preparing for other battles, while we see what went on in the West.

The Confederates held a chain of forts all the way from Virginia to the Mississippi, running through Kentucky. The



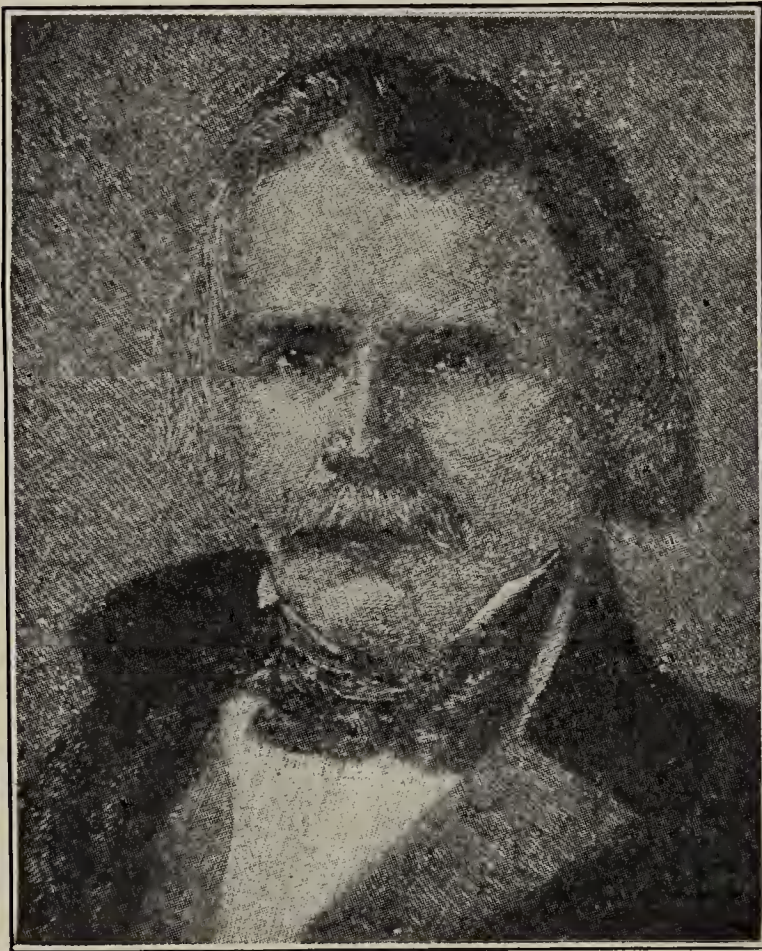
GEN. GRANT AND HIS TROOPS MARCH OVERLAND TO ATTACK FORT DONELSON

Federals planned to force their way into Tennessee, but to do this their gunboats had to pass Fort Henry on the Tennessee River and Fort Donelson on the Cumberland River. These forts were in the northern part of Tennessee and only twelve miles apart.

Early in 1862 General U. S. Grant, in charge of the Federal troops, moved his army by gunboats up the Tennessee River and captured Fort Henry without much difficulty. He then sent the gunboats by the Cumberland River to attack Fort

Donelson, while he marched across the country to join them. The weather was very cold, and the suffering of **Forts Henry and Donelson** the soldiers as they fought in the snow and ice was dreadful.

The fire from the gunboats and the attack of Grant's soldiers soon made it impossible for the Confederates to



GEN. ALBERT SIDNEY JOHNSTON

remain in **Surrender of the forts. Fort Donelson**

The commanding officer sent word to Grant that he would like to confer with him about the terms of surrender. Grant replied, "No terms except unconditional and immediate surrender can be accepted." The fort, with all its stores and nearly the entire garrison of soldiers, then fell into the hands of the Federals, **February 16, 1862.**

The Confederate army, under General Albert Sidney Johnston, turned southward, leaving Kentucky and the upper part of Tennessee to the Federals. Grant followed close behind. At **Pittsburg Landing**, or Shiloh, near the line between Mississippi and Tennessee, Johnston suddenly turned on Grant, and, **April 6, 1862**, opened the great battle of Shiloh.

Battle of Shiloh or Pittsburg Landing

The sudden attack threw the Federals into confusion. General Sherman, in command of one of the divisions of the Northern army, acted with great courage and coolness. Twice wounded, horse after horse shot from under him, he drew his troops out of danger and saved them from defeat.

General Johnston, while leading his soldiers and cheering them on in the afternoon, was shot in the leg. Blood flowed from the wound, but he rode on, cheering his men, until,



GEN. ALBERT SIDNEY JOHNSTON, EXHAUSTED BY LOSS OF BLOOD, FALLS FROM HIS HORSE

faint and exhausted, he fell from his saddle and a few moments later expired. His death was a great loss to the Confederacy.

The battle lasted during two days. On the first day the Federals were forced back almost into the river, when night closed the engagement. The next morning fresh troops arrived to their relief, the tide of battle turned, the Confederates were driven back, and retreated to Corinth. At the same time important forts on the Mississippi River were captured by the Federals, including the town of Memphis. In three months the Mississippi River had been opened as far down as Vicksburg, and the Northern army had penetrated deep into the lines of the Confederacy.

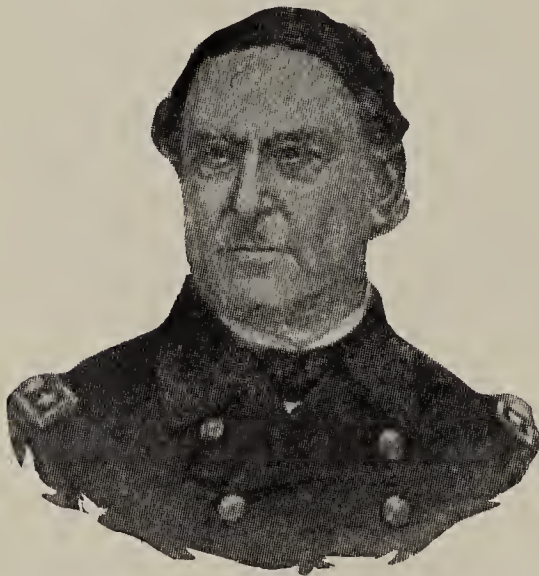
About two weeks after the battle of Shiloh a Federal fleet under command of Admiral David Farragut steamed up

Mississippi
opened to
Vicksburg

the Mississippi River to capture the city of New Orleans. For nearly a week the fleet bombarded the two forts that defended the city. The forts replied, but with little effect.

Painting his vessels black, Farragut glided past the forts at night. As soon as the fleet was discovered, a terrible fire was opened upon the vessels. Burning rafts were set afloat, shot and shell were poured upon them, but the fleet held on. Past the forts were Confederate war vessels that gave battle to Farragut, but these were soon driven ashore. Practically uninjured, the Federal fleet moved up to the city.

New Orleans was thrown into a state of panic. Public property and stores of all kinds were burned, ammunition was sunk in the river, cotton was destroyed, and wooden ships set on fire to drift against the enemy. When Farragut arrived he demanded the surrender of the city, which was given after a three days' conference with the mayor and council (April 29, 1862).



ADMIRAL DAVID G. FARRAGUT

The loss of New Orleans was a great blow to the Confederacy. It was the largest city in the South and the chief center of its cotton trade. It was the main gateway to the rich grain-fields of the West, which supplied food to the soldiers in the field as well as to the people at home. Its loss gave the

lower Mississippi River into the Federal control and forever crushed the hopes of the Southern States for foreign recognition.

4. EVENTS ON THE SEA

One of the first acts of President Lincoln had been to declare all the Southern ports in a state of blockade. By this is meant that armed vessels were to be stationed outside all the harbors of the South to prevent ships coming out or going in. Thus all trade with foreign countries would be cut off.

Blockade
declared,
April, 1861

At first the blockade was not very effective, but as the war progressed the North built and equipped more vessels until the Southern ports were shut up tight and were watched day and night by the blockading fleets.

In order to get cotton to European markets and buy guns and ammunition, besides such necessities as salt and medicines, the Southern ships had to pass these vessels in the harbors by "running the blockade." To do this, small vessels, painted some dark color and not bearing any lights, slipped in the dead of night silently and slowly around the war vessels, and when safe outside hurried to Havana, or other West Indian ports.

Running the
blockade

There they sold the cotton to foreign vessels and bought supplies to take home again. With this load they slipped as secretly as possible past the blockading vessels on their way home. It was dangerous and exciting sport, especially when the blockade runner was discovered and a long chase began.

An event which came near involving the United States in a war with England occurred a short time after the blockade was established. The Confederate government had appointed two representatives to secure recognition of the Confederacy in foreign countries. James Mason was appointed to London, and John Slidell to Paris.

These commissioners escaped the blockade at Charleston

and reached Havana. Here in **November, 1861**, they were taken on board a British steamer named *Trent*. On the day after the *Trent* left Havana she was stopped by a United States war vessel and searched. Mason and Slidell were arrested against the protest of the British officer and carried to Boston, where they were held as prisoners of war.

Great indignation arose in England at this outrage to the British flag. The English government at once demanded that the commissioners be given up or that war would be declared against the United States. The right to search vessels of foreign nations had brought on the War of 1812, and the United States had done the very thing they fought the British for doing. Seeing the justice of the demand, President Lincoln directed that Mason and Slidell be released and sent to England. This is known as "The *Trent* Affair."

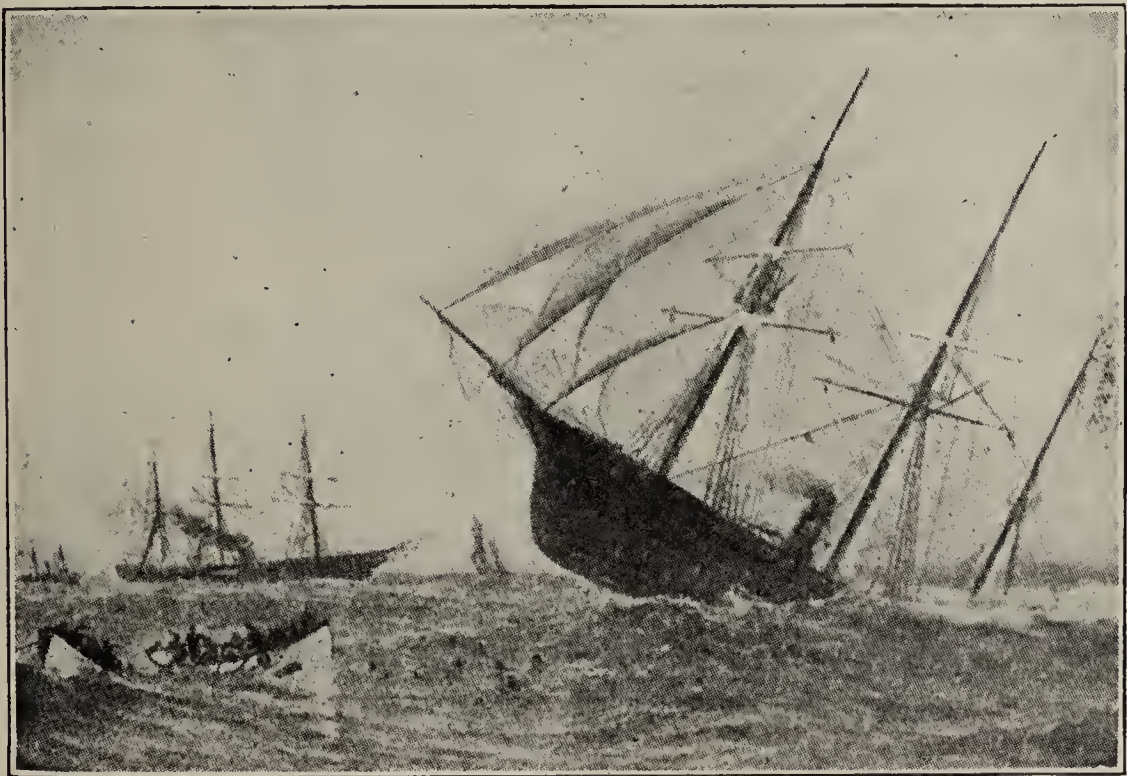
The commissioners failed to accomplish the purpose for which they were sent. The Confederate States were never recognized as a separate government.

The South was not entirely without a fleet of war vessels. President Davis had given commissions to many privateers to prey upon the commerce of the enemy. Some war vessels, notably the *Alabama*, had been built in England for the Confederate government. The English government allowed the *Alabama* to escape from the shipyards under the pretense of having her make a trial trip. Once outside, the *Alabama* put to sea, hoisting the Confederate flag in **August, 1861**.

She started out, under command of Raphael Semmes, on her career of destruction. Crossing the Atlantic, she captured twenty merchant vessels of the United States. Turning southward she cruised for three years through the Gulf

of Mexico, along the West Indies and the coast of South America. Altogether in four years the *Alabama* destroyed sixty vessels, valued at ten million dollars.

A United States war vessel, the *Kearsarge*, was sent in pursuit. At Cherbourg, France, the *Alabama* had put into port for supplies. The *Kearsarge* waited outside the harbor.



THE "KEARSARGE" SINKS THE "ALABAMA"

The *Alabama* came out to engage in battle, though badly prepared after her long cruise. The engagement lasted but a short while, and the *Alabama* was sunk.

The fact that the *Alabama*, and other Confederate war vessels, had been built in England brought on a controversy for damages between the United States and that country. The United States claimed that England had violated the laws of neutral nations in allowing war vessels to be built and equipped in her ports. The dispute lasted for many years, and was finally settled in 1872

by England paying fifteen and a half million dollars to the United States. This incident became known as the "Alabama Claims."

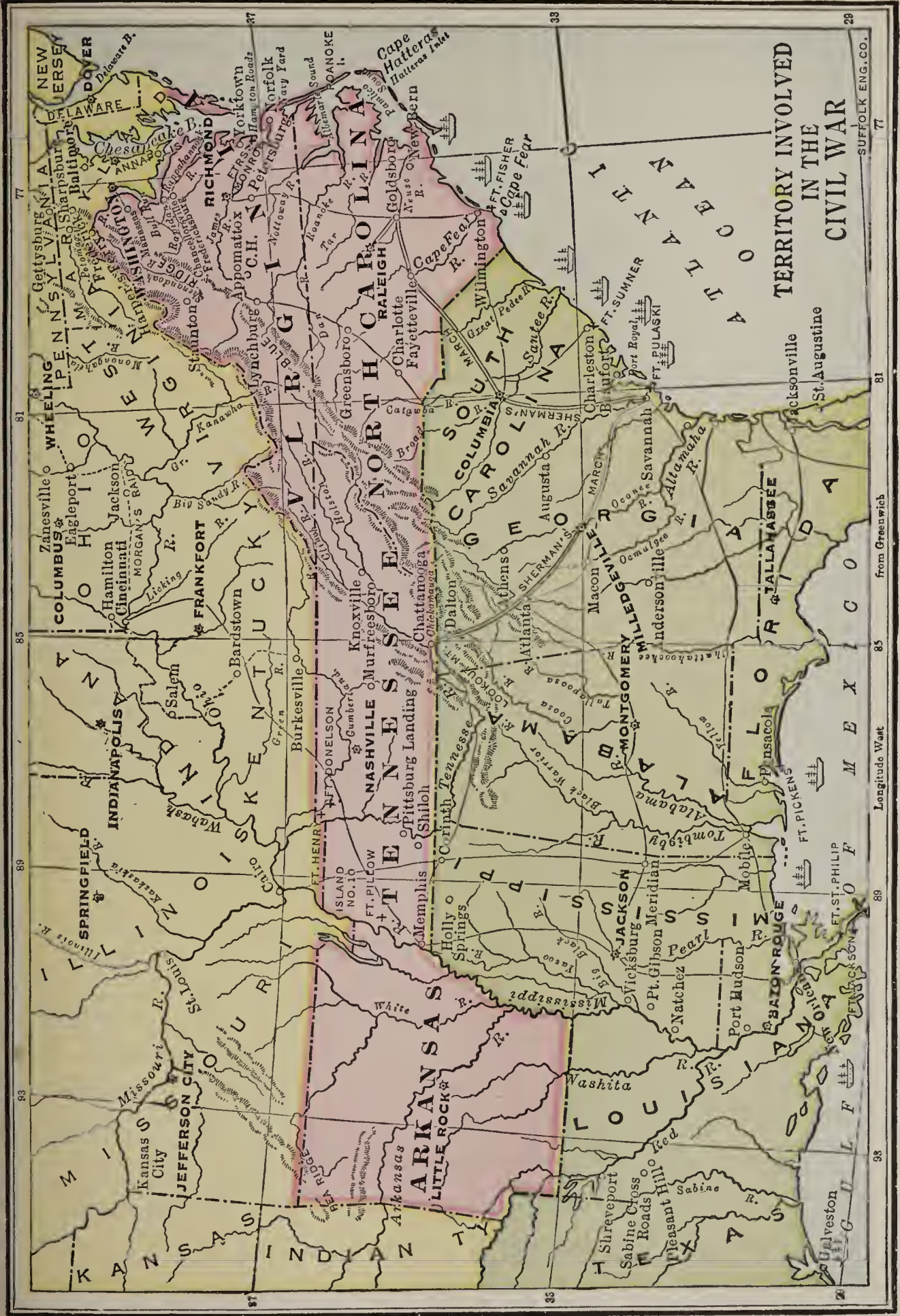
About a month before the battle of Shiloh a strange naval duel occurred in Hampton Roads, near the entrance to Chesapeake Bay. This was the battle between two ironclad vessels named the *Virginia* and the *Monitor*.

When the Federals abandoned the navy yard at Norfolk they sank a war vessel named the *Merrimac*. This vessel had been raised by the Confederate authorities, its hull completely covered with a heavy protection of iron, and its prow fitted with an iron ram. It carried two heavy guns, and was a most formidable enemy. It had been rechristened the *Virginia*. In March, 1862, it steamed into Hampton Roads to attack the wooden ships of the Federal fleet.

One may imagine the consternation the great monster created. Its iron sides could not be pierced by cannon shot, but on the other hand its great guns could easily penetrate the wooden hulls of the enemy's vessels, and its terrible prow could deal a deadly blow.

The *Virginia* made straight for the *Cumberland*. Its ram made a hole in her side that sent her to the bottom with more than a hundred men on board. The *Congress* was next attacked by the guns of the *Virginia*, and that vessel soon surrendered and was set on fire. All the other vessels of the Federal fleet saw their impending fate. There seemed no escape from the floating fort on whose iron sides cannon balls made no impression.

The news of the exploits of the *Virginia* was telegraphed North and created great dismay. Suppose the *Virginia* should ascend the Potomac and bombard Washington itself! Suppose it should destroy all the Union vessels! What



TERRITORY INVOLVED IN THE CIVIL WAR

SUFFOLK ENG. CO. 77

Longitude West from Greenwich

89

85

81

77

33

29

83

89

85

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77

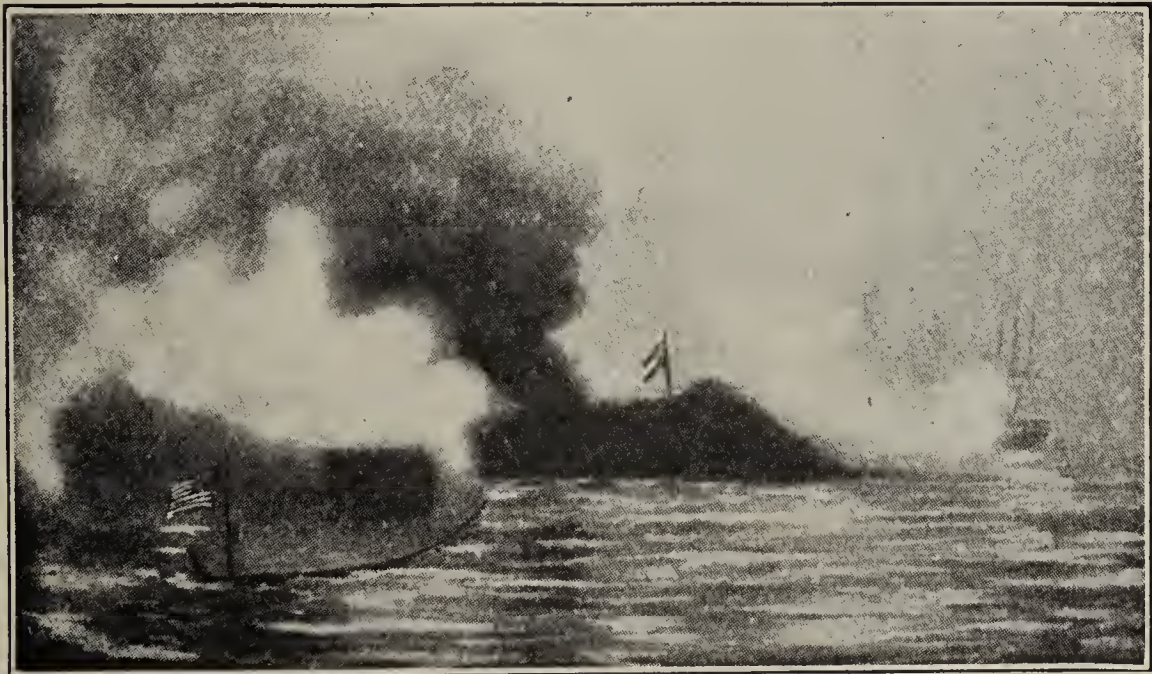
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29

would become of the blockade, and what then would be the result of the war!

Night had put an end to the first day's fighting of the *Virginia*. The next morning as she steamed out to renew her work of destruction there appeared a stranger on the waters. It was another ironclad, named the *Monitor*, that had arrived in the night. It looked like "a cheese box on a raft." It lay with its decks almost level with the water, and in the center had a revolving

The arrival
of the
Monitor



THE "VIRGINIA" AND THE "MONITOR," IN HAMPTON ROADS, ENGAGE IN THE FIRST BATTLE OF IRONCLADS, MARCH, 1862

turret for guns. It had come just in time to protect the Northern vessels from the attack of the *Virginia*.

Cautiously the two ironclads approached each other. When within a distance of one hundred yards the *Monitor* opened fire, and began the first battle of ironclads the world had ever known. Sometimes the vessels were almost side by side, then again they stood off a half mile apart. Shot after shot rained upon their sides, but

The duel of
the ironclads

without effect. Neither suffered any considerable damage. Each was invulnerable from the guns then known to warfare. After a while the pilot house of the *Monitor* was damaged and she steamed away for repairs. The *Virginia* withdrew to Norfolk. The battle was left undecided and was not renewed.

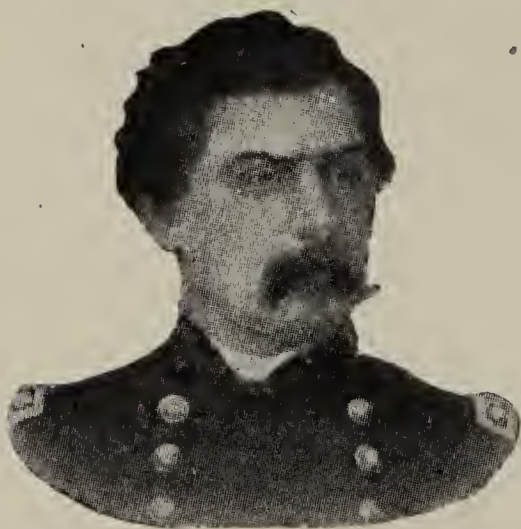
It was now evident that one ironclad was worth more than all the wooden vessels put together. The day of ironclad war vessels had arrived. The battle in Hampton Roads was the most important single event of the war, since it revolutionized all naval warfare.

5. THE PENINSULAR CAMPAIGN

We left the Northern army demoralized after the battle of Manassas. For over six months, while the campaign in

General
George B.
McClellan

the West was going on, nothing of great importance had happened on the soil of Virginia. General George B. McClellan had been appointed Commander-in-Chief of the Union army, and had spent the



GEN. GEORGE B. MCCLELLAN

time in thoroughly drilling and organizing the army of the Potomac. The autumn passed and the winter came on while he was getting ready. General Joseph E. Johnston, in command of the Southern army, was watching him and preparing to meet his advance.

In February, 1862, the popular cry for a forward movement was too great to be ignored, and McClellan with 120,000 men started on the famous Peninsular campaign. Taking his

army by transports down the Chesapeake, he landed at Fortress Monroe and proposed to march against Richmond by the narrow strip of land between the York and the James rivers.

Preparations
for advance

At Yorktown he spent a month besieging a Confederate force, which retired towards Richmond just as the Federal army was ready to attack. At Williamsburg an engagement occurred, and the Confederates retired. At Seven Pines or Fair Oaks a furious battle occurred in which General Johnston was wounded, and many men on both sides were killed. At last the Union army came within ten miles of Richmond, and could see the church spires and the smoke from the chimneys. It was to be a long time yet before they saw the inside of the city.

Battles
along the
Peninsula



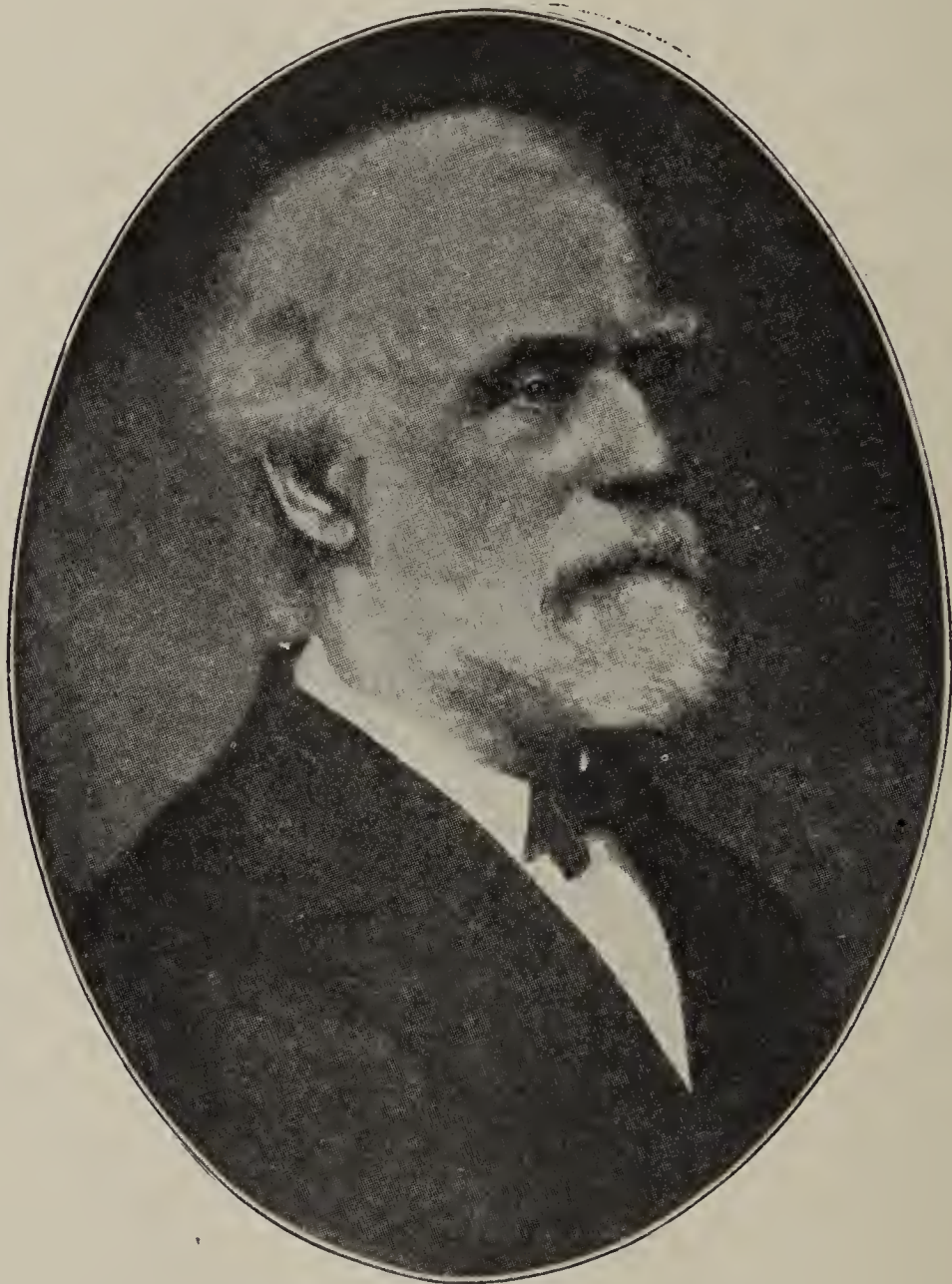
GEN. JOSEPH E. JOHNSTON

In the meantime a remarkable campaign had been going on in the Shenandoah Valley. General Stonewall Jackson had a force of fifteen thousand men, which was opposed by two Federal armies under General Banks and General Frémont. Their object was to unite and crush Jackson, and join McClellan on the Peninsula.

Jackson, however, was one of the most brilliant leaders in the war. During the famous Valley campaign, he drove the Federals out of Winchester, and so confused all his opposing enemies as to prevent them joining their forces. He came so dangerously near Washington as to throw the authorities into sudden alarm. Word was sent to McClellan in the greatest haste to detach troops to protect the capital from capture by Jackson.

Jackson's
Valley
campaign

In forty days Jackson had marched his little army of fifteen thousand men over four hundred miles. He had utterly routed four armies in succession, aggregating sixty



GEN. ROBERT E. LEE

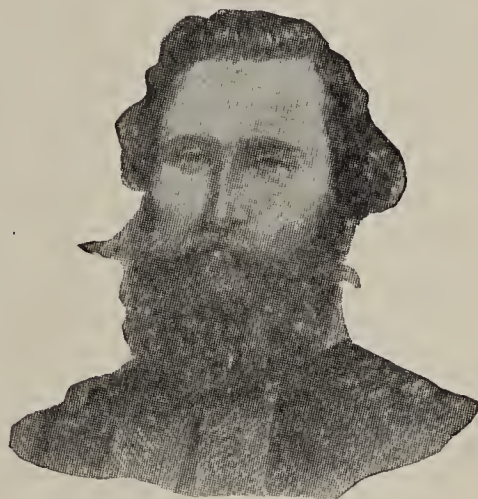
thousand men, and prevented the uniting of the Federal forces sent to destroy him. He had captured thirty-five hundred of the enemy, and killed or wounded as many more. After this series of movements he quietly marched his

army to Richmond and joined his forces with those confronting McClellan. This was in **May** and **June, 1862**.

When General Johnston was wounded at the battle of Seven Pines, he was succeeded in command of the Confederate army by General Robert E. Lee. General McClellan, in a campaign of four months, had moved up the Peninsula, and was now with a large army almost at the very entrance of the Confederate capital.

General Lee, desiring to know more about the task before him, sent General J. E. B. Stuart, with a body of cavalry, to

Stuart rides
around
McClellan find out the strength
and position of Mc-
Clellan's army. General
Stuart rode entirely around Mc-
Clellan's forces, escaped unnoticed,
and brought the information needed
by General Lee. In the meantime
Jackson had arrived on the scene,
having kept the Federal army
from joining McClellan before
Richmond.



GEN. J. E. B. STUART

Now began that series of desperate engagements around Richmond, known as the Seven Days' Battles. They were fought in the last days of **June, 1862**. There was fighting every day for a week, and at night the tired soldiers had to march through swamps and woods to take position for the next day's battle.

The skill of Lee, Jackson, and Stuart at length succeeded in forcing McClellan to withdraw to Harrison's Landing on the James River, where his army was safe under the protection of gunboats. McClellan had lost fifteen thousand men,

besides quantities of arms and stores. Lee had lost about the same number of men, but Richmond was safe for a while. Thus ended the Peninsular campaign.

6. PROGRESS OF THE WAR

After the battles around Richmond, McClellan's army was recalled to Washington, and General John Pope was put in command. Lee decided to move northward, and, if possible, carry the war into the enemy's country.

Toward the last of **August, 1862**, the armies of Pope and Lee came together on the old battle ground of Manassas. Stonewall Jackson held the enemy in check until he was joined by Lee, after which the Confederates swept everything before them. The second battle of Manassas was also a Confederate victory. General Pope was now relieved, and General McClellan was again put in command.

Lee decided to move into Maryland. Early in September he crossed the Potomac near Harper's Ferry. McClellan met him in Boonesborough, and forced him to retreat. Stonewall Jackson captured Harper's Ferry with a large quantity of ammunition and supplies.

The two armies of Lee and McClellan now faced each other near Sharpsburg on Antietam Creek, and one of the bloodiest battles of the war occurred, **September 17**. The battle lasted all day, and until darkness made it impossible to continue. The next day the troops rested facing each other. The night of the **18th** Lee recrossed the Potomac unmolested. It was a drawn battle, but it ended the invasion of Maryland.

McClellan was again relieved, and General A. E. Burnside was put in command of the Federal armies. Burnside,

with a large army, moved southward in **December, 1862**, and Lee met him at Fredericksburg. The center of Lee's army held a position called Marye's Heights. **Battle of Fredericksburg** Burnside hurled his men against this position only to be repulsed with terrible slaughter. His troops found it difficult to advance over the piles of dead. When the night closed over the scene there were thirteen



GEN. LEE ADVANCES INTO MARYLAND, SEPTEMBER, 1862

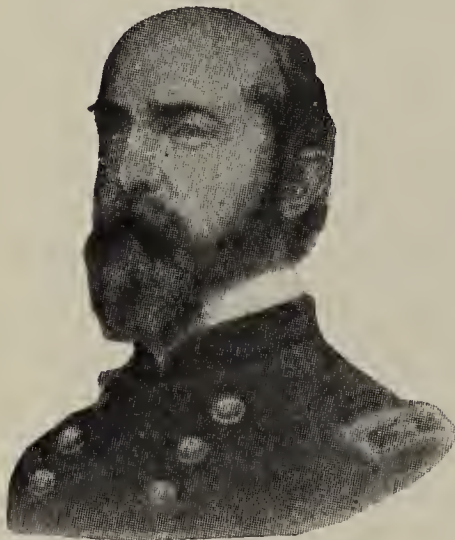
thousand dead on the Federal side, and four thousand on the Confederate side. Burnside retired with his army, and soon afterwards resigned his position. He was succeeded by General Joseph Hooker, known as "Fighting Joe Hooker."

While these events were taking place, President Lincoln

He was borne on a litter to a farmhouse near by, and in a few days died. His last thoughts were upon the battle, and he was muttering orders as his life ebbed away. His last words were, "Let us cross over the river and rest under the shade of the trees." His death was a great loss to the Confederate cause. Lee wept when he heard the sad news, and said, "I have indeed lost my right arm."

7. CRISES IN THE WAR

Lee now decided to invade Pennsylvania. By this move he hoped to get food and clothing for his soldiers from the stores and fields of the North, to threaten Washington, and, if he defeated the Federal army, to secure foreign recognition of the independence of the Confederate States, and perhaps dictate peace to the Northern States.



GEN. GEORGE B. MEADE

Early in **June, 1863**, with an army of about sixty thousand men, Lee crossed the Potomac and moved on into Pennsylvania. General George B. Meade, now in command of the

Union army of over one hundred thousand men, set out to check his advance.

The two armies faced each other at the little village of Gettysburg. The battle began **July 1, 1863**. On the first day the Federal division was driven through the streets of the town, and becoming confused lost many men. Lee did not press his advantage, but waited for the arrival of the remainder of his army. That night reënforcements arrived for both sides, troops took

position for the battle next day, and officers held important councils.

On the second day, in the afternoon, an attack was made on the Union lines, but without any particular advantage. The great struggle occurred on the third day of the battle, when General Lee resolved to capture Cemetery Hill, the key to the position of the Federal army.

About one o'clock Lee opened fire on Cemetery Hill with one hundred and fifty guns. The roar of artillery and the bursting of shells made a noise that shook the earth. The terrible bombardment lasted nearly two hours. Tons of metal were poured against the Union lines, but Meade's men were immovable.

Lee sent word to Longstreet to charge the hill. The order was turned over to General Pickett, who saluted, and moved his troops out of cover of the woods and into the opening between the two lines. Fifteen thousand men moved steadily across the valley a mile wide to attack the Federal guns. **Pickett's charge**

The Federal guns played ceaselessly on the advancing Confederates. The brave troops were not dismayed. Every soldier pulled his cap down over his eyes and moved forward with easy, swinging step, knowing that upon the issues of that hour hung the destiny of the great battle. Not a man hesitated, as with steady march the troops crossed the valley and began to ascend the slope of Cemetery Hill. The Federal troops were in readiness behind their breastworks, holding their fire until the Confederates were in range of their guns.

Then burst the terrible rattle of musketry. Thousands of Federal guns mowed down the advancing Confederates. Volleys of infantry fire made great gaps in their ranks. Still they rushed forward, engaged **The repulse**

the gunners hand to hand, and planted their flags on the breastworks.

The terrible fire was more than the Confederate troops could stand. Their ranks were thrown into confusion, and soon the whole division began to fall back. Thousands had fallen in



PICKETT'S REPULSE AT GETTYSBURG WAS THE TURNING POINT OF THE WAR
IN THE EAST

the charge. The rest hesitated, wavered, and retired slowly down the slope. Silently the remainder of the broken regiments retreated across the valley of death and into their own lines. Pickett's charge had been repulsed.

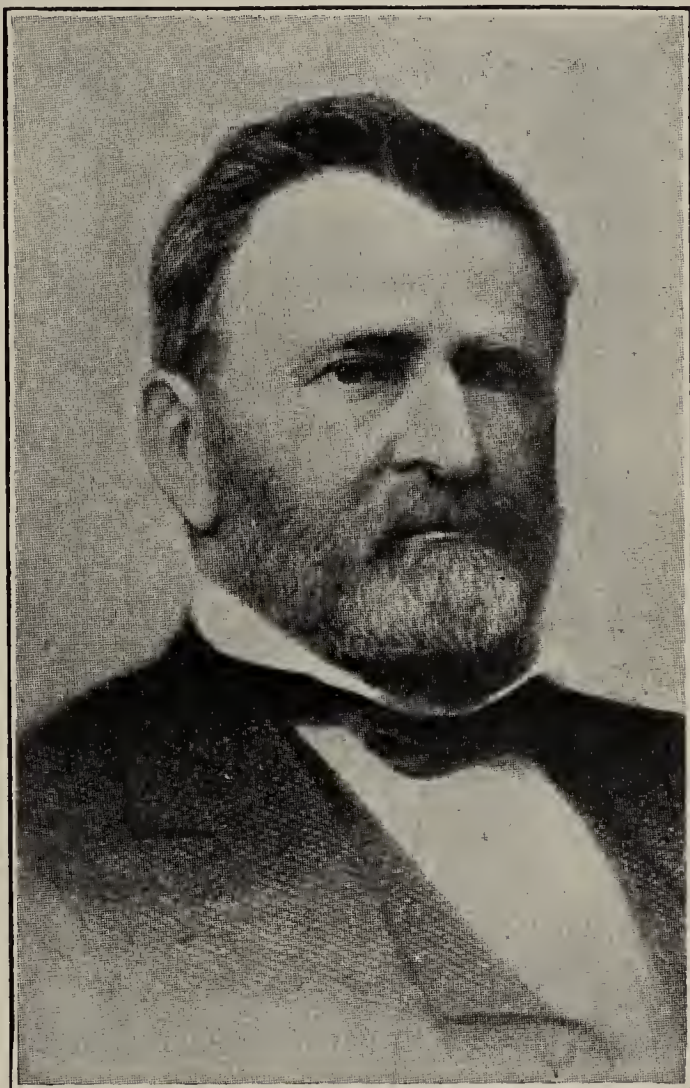
In this battle over forty thousand men were killed or wounded, about evenly divided between the two armies. Gettysburg was the turning point of the war in the East.

It was the high-water mark of the Confederate cause. Ten days later Lee recrossed the Potomac and retired to the banks of the Rapidan. There were no more recruits to fill up the gaps in his army made by the awful charges at Gettysburg.

While these events were happening in Virginia, the Confederate army in the West had gradually been losing ground. After the battle of Shiloh and the capture of New Orleans, all the fortified posts along the Mississippi fell into the hands of the Federals, except Port Hudson and Vicksburg. Those places stood on high bluffs above the river level and were strongly defended.

The Southern forces under Bragg marched into Kentucky in the summer of 1862. The movement was checked at the battle of Perryville in October, and Bragg established his winter quarters at Murfreesboro, ^{Perryville} about forty miles from Nashville. Here on the ^{and Mur-} last days of the year he was attacked by General ^{freesboro} Rosecrans. A desperate three days' battle ensued, at the end of which Bragg had to abandon his winter quarters.

General Grant, who was now in command of the Union

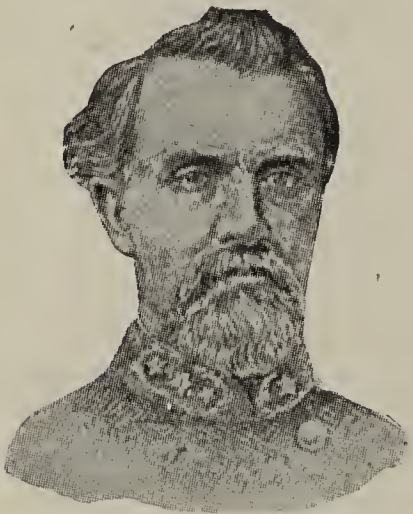


GEN. ULYSSES S. GRANT

forces in the West, turned his attention to Vicksburg, determined to reduce that stronghold and open the Mississippi.¹

The siege of Vicksburg After several battles around Vicksburg the Confederates under General Pemberton retired within the city. General W. T. Sherman was sent to watch the Confederate army in the interior, and Grant settled down to the long siege of Vicksburg.

The gunboats on the river and the batteries on the land began a merciless fire upon the city. The bursting shells made a sad havoc of the buildings, and threw the people into a terrible panic. For protection against the exploding shells the terrified people made caves in the hillsides, or hid themselves in the cellars of their houses. There they lived for days and weeks with the thunder of bursting shells and exploding mines constantly in their ears.



GEN. N. B. FORREST

Starvation now stared the people in the face. The soldiers had only a small piece of bacon and a little musty bread each day. The people were reduced to eating mule meat, which was sold for a dollar a pound.

The siege of Vicksburg began in **May, 1863**. By July the city was reduced to the point where it could hold out no longer. On **July 3**, General Pemberton wrote General Grant a note

¹ In the campaign against Vicksburg, General Nathan B. Forrest, the famous Confederate cavalry leader, did remarkable service in cutting the railroads in the rear of Grant's army, and leaving him without supplies. This greatly hindered his movements and saved Vicksburg from immediate capture. His many cavalry raids and his dramatic character made him one of the most conspicuous figures in the war.

asking for terms of surrender. In the afternoon the two generals met, and honorable terms were agreed upon.

July 4, the day that Lee began his retreat from Gettysburg, Vicksburg was formally surrendered to General Grant, with thirty-one thousand soldiers, sixty thousand muskets, and nearly two hundred cannon. The surrender of Vicksburg

Five days afterwards Port Hudson surrendered, and the entire length of the Mississippi River was in control of the Federal army. President Lincoln received the news with great satisfaction, saying, "The Father of Waters now rolls unvexed to the sea."

The capture of Vicksburg and of Port Hudson divided the Confederacy in two. Further supplies and provisions could no longer come from the West to feed the armies, since the Federal gunboats patrolled the entire river. The defeat at Gettysburg and the fall of Vicksburg, coming almost on the same day, decided the fate of the war. Henceforth it was merely a question of endurance to an inevitable end.

8. THROUGH THE HEART OF THE SOUTH

General Bragg had retired from Murfreesboro to Chattanooga. General Rosecrans had followed him closely and compelled him to move out of that city. In Battle of Chickamauga **September, 1863**, the great battle of Chickamauga, a few miles from Chattanooga, was fought. It was a desperate engagement in which the Federal army was saved from disaster by the firmness of General Thomas, who was called the "Rock of Chickamauga." As it was, Rosecrans was forced into Chattanooga and was closely besieged by General Bragg.

The Federal army came near suffering the same starvation that befell the Southern army at Vicksburg. Sherman,

however, arrived with troops, and a series of desperate battles occurred around Chattanooga, resulting in the defeat of General Bragg. Bragg then withdrew his forces into Georgia, leaving Chattanooga in the hands of the Union army.

Important changes in the command of the armies took place. General Grant, who had attracted much attention by his able generalship, was appointed to the chief command of all the Federal armies in the West. General Joseph E. Johnston, second only to Lee in his powers of strategy and skill as a leader, succeeded General Bragg in command of the Southern armies in the West. In **March, 1864**, Grant was made Commander-in-Chief of all the forces of the United States, with the rank of Lieutenant General.

General Grant planned two great campaigns, one under himself against Lee in Virginia, with the purpose of capturing Richmond; the other under Sherman against Johnston, with the purpose of capturing Atlanta. In this way Grant proposed to unfold the Confederacy within the coils of two mighty armies, and to end the war by a campaign of destruction.

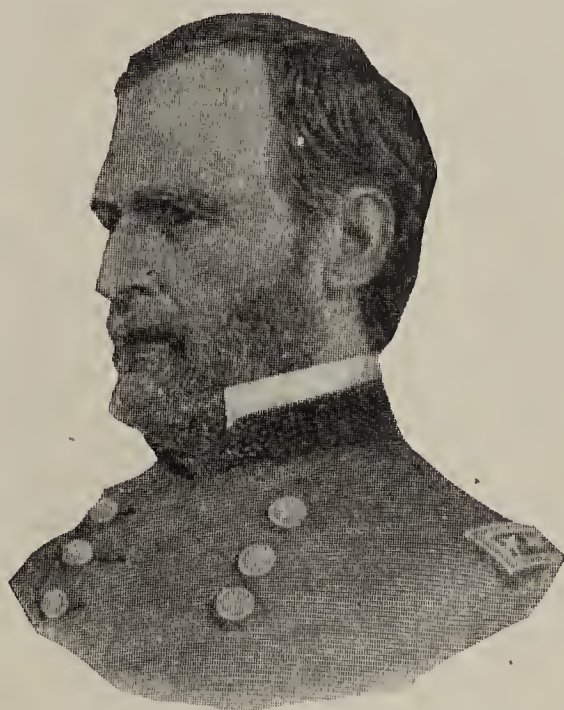
The two campaigns began at the same time in **May, 1864**. On the day after Grant crossed the Rapidan to attack General Lee, Sherman left Chattanooga, on his long march through the Confederate States. He had an army of a hundred thousand men and two hundred and fifty cannon. Johnston's army was half that size.

As Sherman advanced, Johnston interposed his army at every point. There was sharp fighting almost every day. For over two months Johnston slowly retired as Sherman's lines threatened to flank his army. By July Johnston had reached Atlanta and fortified himself in the city. Sherman

had lost about thirty-two thousand men; Johnston had lost about twenty-two thousand.

At this juncture General John B. Hood was put in command of the Confederate army, with directions to attack the Federals and drive them back. This Hood tried to do in the bloody battles around Atlanta. He failed, however, and then took his army into Tennessee, to threaten Sherman's line of supplies. Here his army was severely defeated in the battles around Nashville. This left Sherman unopposed to enter Atlanta and to continue his march through the South.

It was the policy of General Sherman to bring the war to a close by making the South "feel the hard hand of war." When he set out on his "March to the Sea," he set fire to the city of Atlanta, and out of four thousand houses, only four hundred were left standing.



GEN. WM. T. SHERMAN

With sixty thousand men Sherman set out for Savannah. His army covered a front of forty miles, and the soldiers lived on the country as they moved. Farm- **The March** houses, gin houses, cotton crops were burned; **to the Sea** horses, cows, hogs, sheep were killed for the soldiers' use; barns were rifled of their contents; slaves were carried away; railroads were destroyed by tearing up the tracks, heating the rails, and twisting them around trees. Sherman estimated the damage done to the State of Georgia at about one hundred million dollars.

From Savannah Sherman turned through South Carolina, and thence on to Goldsboro, North Carolina. Following his army was a crowd of stragglers that did more damage than the soldiers themselves. They were called the "bummers of the army." At Columbia, South Carolina, a few of the soldiers and bummers broke into the saloons, became drunk, and lost all restraint. Nothing could stay them. The city was set on fire and was soon reduced to a heap of ruins.¹

Sherman's army marched eight hundred miles in six months, and cut a path of destruction and desolation through the heart of the South. Often in the wake of his army the people were glad to eat the corn left by his horses. It was his purpose to join Grant in Virginia and unite their forces against Lee. Johnston had been recalled to his old command. Sherman marched on, opposed only by the small army of Johnston. At Goldsboro, North Carolina, the two armies rested facing each other, and awaiting the events in Virginia.

9. THE END OF THE WAR

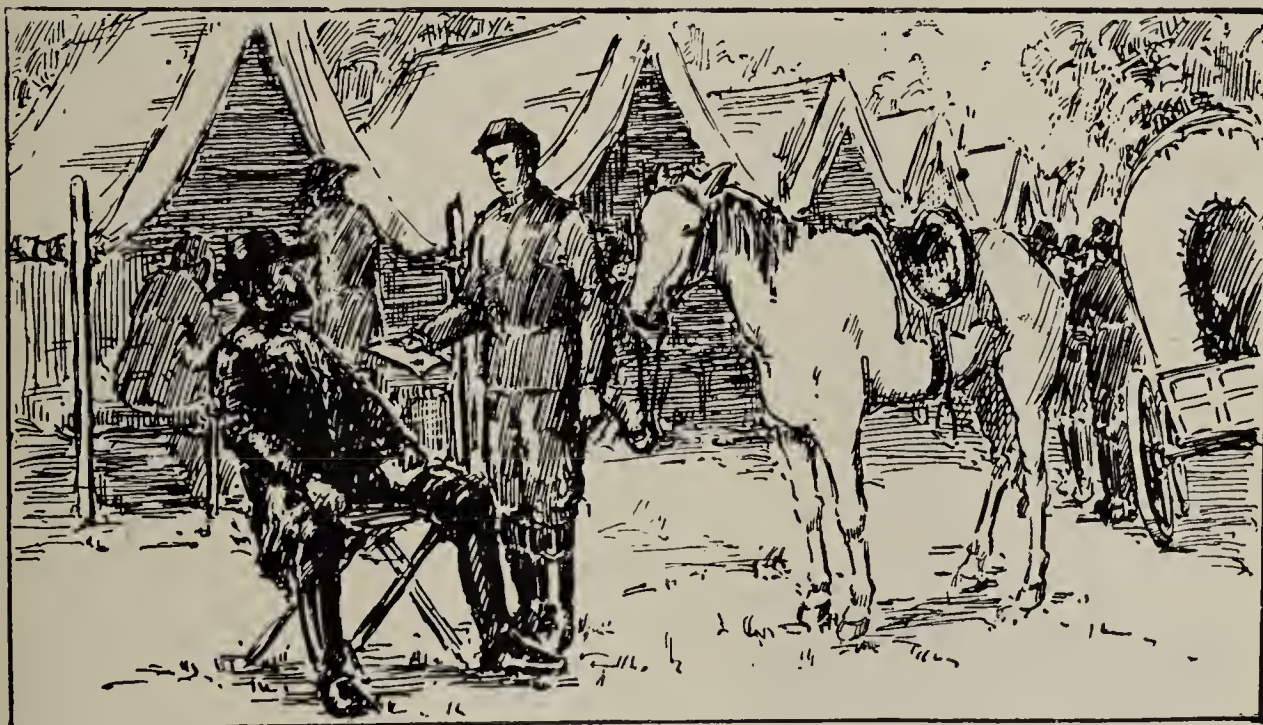
General Grant, with an army of one hundred and twenty thousand men, and with abundance of provisions and stores of all kinds, had moved against General Lee's ragged and half-starved army of sixty thousand, at the time that Sherman was on the march through the South. Grant had resolved to overwhelm his antagonist by force of numbers,

¹ In regard to the burning of Columbia, ever since the occurrence there has been a difference of opinion as to whether General Sherman ordered, or consented to, the unfortunate affair. General Sherman insists that it was done by "the bummers of the army." The people of Columbia are strong in their belief that he was aware of the intention of his soldiers, that it was a prearranged affair, and that nothing was done to prevent it. In any event, it appears to have been an unnecessary and an unfortunate destruction of a large part of a beautiful city.

and wear him out by exhausting his army and destroying his supplies.

In May, 1864, Grant crossed the Rapidan and plunged into the tangled swamps and dense forest known as "The Wilderness." Here for two days the battle raged so fiercely that saplings and even trees were cut down by the flying bullets. Grant lost so many men that he changed his plan of direct attack, and tried to move around Lee's army to seize Spottsylvania Court House.

Battles in
"The
Wilderness"



THE HEADQUARTERS OF GEN. GRANT

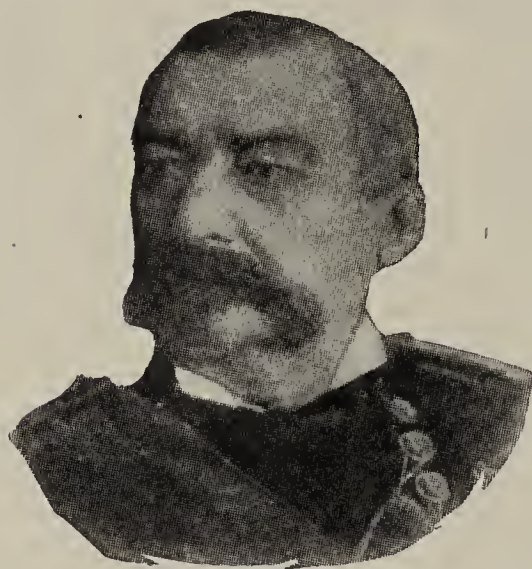
Lee, however, easily detected his plan, and interposed his army again between Grant and Richmond. Here another assault on Lee's line occurred, but without serious result. Grant in two weeks had lost forty thousand men, about two thirds as many as Lee had in his whole army. He said, however, he "intended to fight it out on this line if it took all summer."

Lee fell back to Cold Harbor and intrenched his forces.

Grant hurled an army of one hundred thousand men against the Confederate lines. The result was easily foreseen. His men fell by the thousand, while Lee's loss was insignificant. Grant now moved around to the south of Richmond and laid siege to Petersburg. He had resolved to shut up the Confederate army in that place until they were compelled by exhaustion to surrender.

The siege lasted two months. The Federals dug a mine under one of the Confederate forts and placed nine thousand pounds of powder in it. It was exploded with terrible effect. Tons of earth were thrown into the air, while human bodies and pieces of artillery were scattered in every direction. The Federals rushed in to

complete the work of destruction, but the Confederates recovered their wits in time to catch the Federal troops in the crater formed by the explosion. The place became a slaughterhouse. In a few hours the Union army had lost three or four thousand men.



GEN. PHILIP H. SHERIDAN

General Lee had sent a detachment of troops under General Early to threaten Washington. General Early moved up the valley of the Shenandoah River. Driving everything before him he came almost to the gates of the national capital, but was compelled to return.

Grant sent General Philip H. Sheridan in haste to intercept Early and thwart his movements. This Sheridan succeeded in doing by the battle of Winchester. He then set out to devastate the valley of the Shenandoah so

that no army could possibly live in it. He destroyed growing crops, mills, barns, bridges, farm implements, and drove off all the stock. He said, "A crow flying over the valley would have to take his rations."

As the siege of Petersburg continued, the armies of the Confederacy grew weaker and weaker. Admiral Farragut had entered Mobile Bay and destroyed the Confederate gunboats at that place. The blockade was more rigid than ever. Everything was scarce, and almost the last man had been drafted for the Southern army. Lee's forces around Petersburg grew fewer and fewer, until at last he had only about thirty-five thousand men.

In **March, 1865**, an attack was made on the Federal fort, Stedman, in front of Petersburg, by General John B. Gordon. It was a gallant charge, by which three hundred Confederates captured the fort and one thousand prisoners with the loss of fewer than six men. The fort could not be held, however, in the face of an overwhelming enemy.

In **April, 1865**, Grant made a determined attack all along the lines around Petersburg. The lines were broken, and Lee saw that Richmond must soon fall into the hands of the Federals. He telegraphed to President Davis that the city must be evacuated.

President Davis and his cabinet quietly left Richmond on

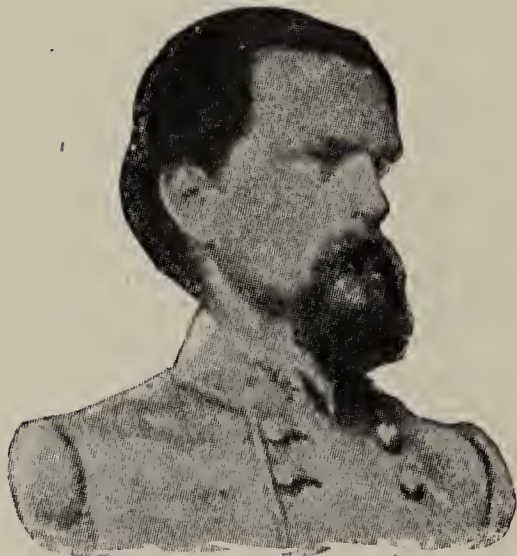


FARRAGUT, LASHED TO THE RIGGING, DIRECTS THE ENTRY OF HIS SHIPS INTO MOBILE BAY

The exhaustion of the Confederacy

their way south. Many citizens also prepared to depart, and in the confusion fire broke out, and a large part of the city was laid in ashes. The Federal forces soon entered the city, and the news of its capture was telegraphed throughout the North and Europe. It was almost the last act in the great drama of the war.

Lee's army was reduced to a mere handful of men, destitute of everything, and hemmed in on all sides by the overwhelming forces of Grant. To continue the struggle in the face of such odds would be sheer madness. Accordingly, the two great commanders met by appointment, **April 9, 1865**, in a farmhouse near Appomattox



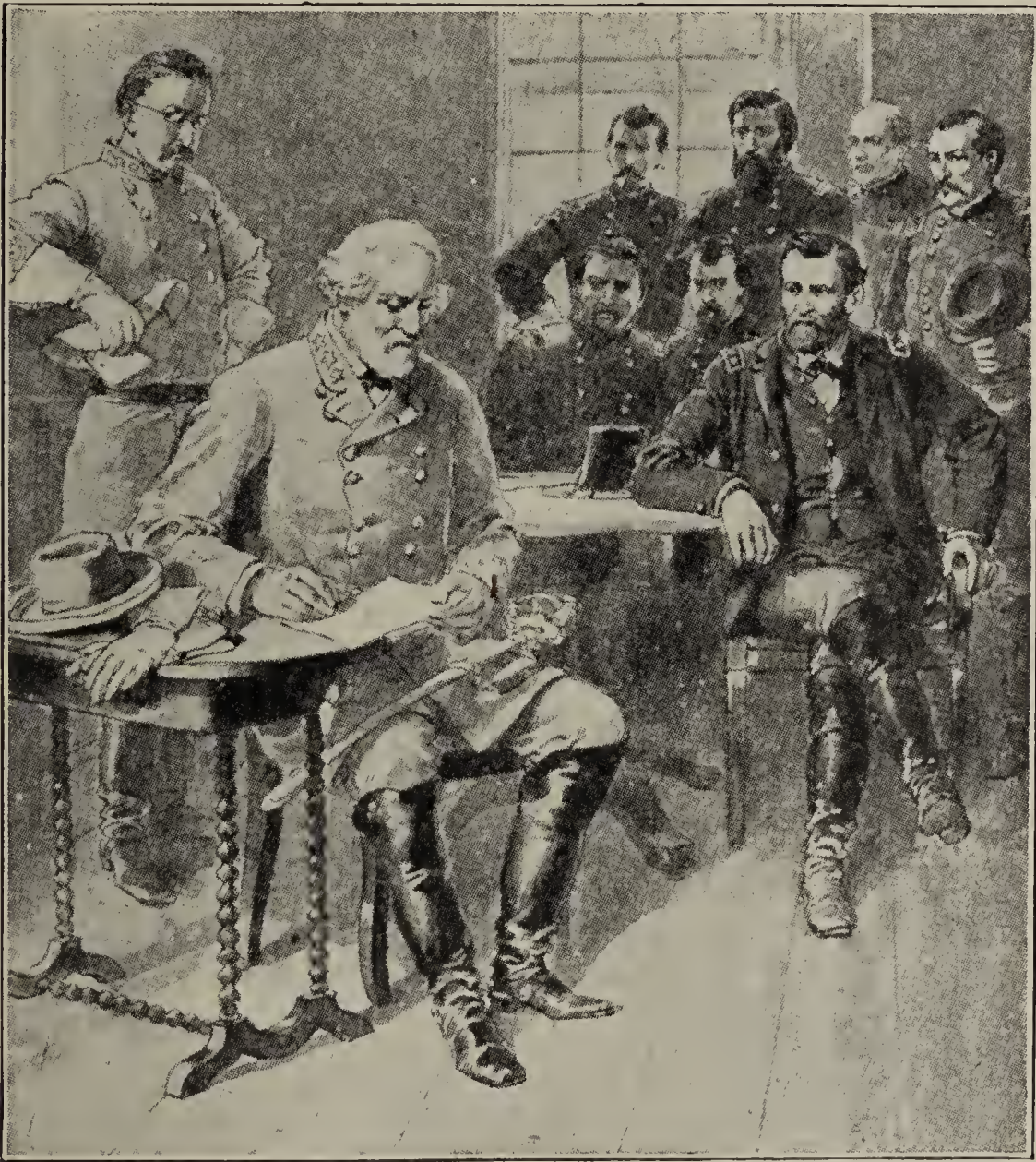
GEN. JOHN B. GORDON

Court House to arrange terms of surrender. The two generals had known each other in the Mexican War, and began to talk over old times. Lee was a man of great dignity, and his face did not betray whether he was glad the great conflict was over, or sad at the result of the war.

General Lee said, "I have asked for this interview in order to ascertain the terms upon which you would receive the surrender of my army." Grant replied, "Your soldiers will lay down their arms and not take them up again during the war." Nothing was said about the surrender of side-arms, horses, or private property. Grant wrote out the terms, which Lee signed and handed back to him.

Grant then said, "Your men will need their horses to work on their little farms, and I will instruct my officers to

let every man who claims a horse or mule take it home with him." Lee expressed his gratification at this, and after a few minutes' conversation on other matters, Grant and Lee remarked, "I shall be glad to send all my Lee



GEN. LEE SURRENDERS AT APPOMATTOX COURT HOUSE, APRIL 9, 1865

prisoners into your lines, for I have no provisions for them. I have indeed nothing for my own men. They have been living for the past few days on parched corn, and we are badly in need of both rations and forage." Grant at once

proposed to supply Lee's veterans with food from his own stores.

Within a few weeks Johnston surrendered his army to Sherman. Other armies in the South and West laid down their arms, and the war was over. The soldiers on both sides quietly dispersed to their homes, and settled down to peaceful pursuits.

Great was the rejoicing in the North when it was known that Lee had surrendered. President Lincoln at once considered plans for the treatment of the Southern States, and for their return to the Union. After a day of hard work, on **April 14**, less than a week after the news had come of the end of the war, he went to Ford's Theater, and was seated in a box with his family and friends. An actor, John Wilkes Booth, stole into the box behind the President and shot him in the head.

Leaping on to the stage the assassin brandished a dagger and cried out, "Sic semper tyrannis" ("Thus always to tyrants"). The audience was too horror-stricken to act promptly.

The murderer escaped by the rear of the stage, leaped on a horse that was ready saddled and waiting, and made his way into Maryland and then into Virginia, where he was killed while resisting arrest.

President Lincoln was removed to a house near by and died the day after he was wounded. Secretary Stanton, who was standing by his bedside, said, "Now he belongs to the ages." His death was a national calamity, coming at a time when his wise counsels and generous impulses were sorely needed in the reconstruction of the seceding States.

In the meantime President Davis had left Richmond, and

was rapidly making his way southward. He was finally overtaken in Georgia by a body of Federal cavalry, and carried captive to Fortress Monroe. Here he was kept a close prisoner for two years, until he was released on bail. After his release President Davis went to his farm in Mississippi, where he lived in dignified retirement until his death in 1889.

10. HARDSHIPS AND HEROISM

War is a cruel thing at best. Vast sums of money must be expended, thousands of men must be engaged, millions of dollars of property must be destroyed, and the homes of the people made desolate by the death of brave men. Let us hope that nations will learn to settle their differences in other ways than by the slaughter of soldiers and the destruction of property.

It is almost impossible to tell the cost of the war. It rose at one time on the Union side to three million dollars a day. Counting the value of the liberated slaves, the loss by ravaging armies, and the pension since paid to the soldiers, the war probably represents a cost of ten billion dollars.

From first to last nearly three million men were engaged in battle. The losses in single encounters and short campaigns were at times appalling, equal in number to a small army. Over six hundred thousand soldiers were killed in battle, or died from wounds and disease during the four years of the war.

The suffering was greater in the South where the war had mainly been fought. The Southern people after the surrender of their army found themselves almost destitute, their money was valueless, their banks had

been wrecked, their railroads destroyed; their fields were unplanted, and their slaves had been set free.

In some places wide regions of country had been laid waste, mills and gin houses burned, stock killed or carried off, and many a fine old mansion left a heap of smoking ruins. The war bore hard upon the Southern people and left them in a sad state of desolation.

The close blockade of the Southern ports by the Federal vessels had caused great hardship. Salt especially became scarce. Sea water was boiled down, and even the ground of smokehouses where meat had been kept was dug up and boiled to get the salt out of the dirt. Coffee and tea were rare, and substitutes such as parched corn and potatoes were used. Medicine, woolen cloth, paper, cutlery, and indeed all the articles the Southern people were accustomed to buy, were hard to get, since they could only be had by running the blockade.

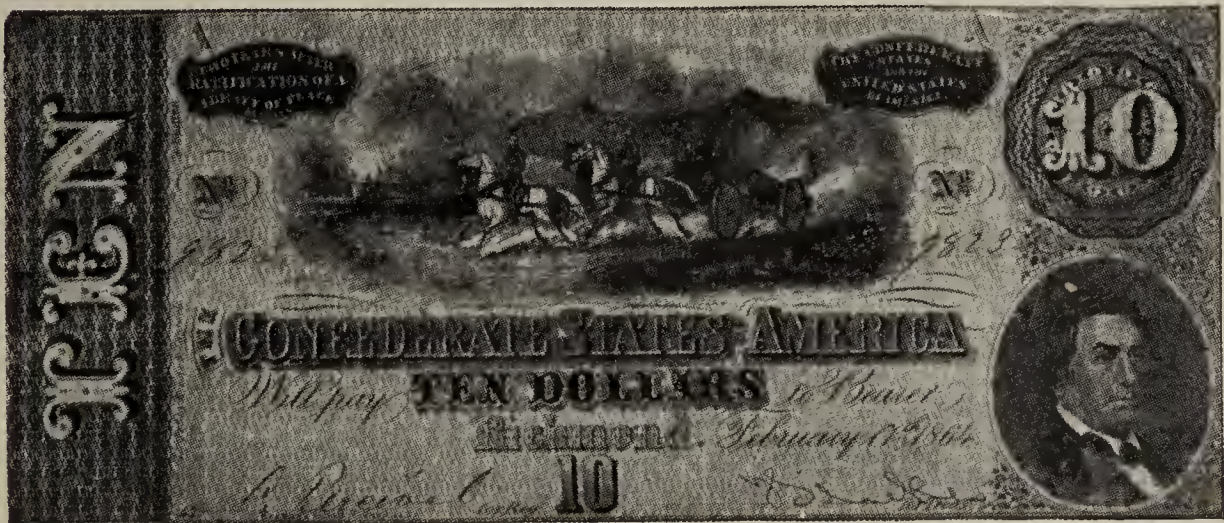
For clothing, the people depended on cotton, which they made into homespun cloth, frequently by means of hand looms. There was no lack of corn, rice, sugar, sirup, tobacco, and other products that were raised in the South. Often the Northern soldiers lacked some of the things the Southern soldiers had, and out on the picket lines when all was quiet they would meet and swap coffee and knives for sugar and tobacco.

Confederate money fell off in value as the war advanced. It took quantities of it to buy anything. A yard of calico cost \$50, a hat cost \$300, a barrel of flour cost \$400, a pair of boots cost \$800, and a horse cost several thousand. All that time the pay of a soldier was eleven dollars a month, about enough to buy a loaf of bread. When the war closed, Confederate money ceased to have any

value. Now it is regarded as a curiosity, or is kept as a souvenir of the war.

The women did their part nobly in the war. In the North societies were formed to collect hospital supplies and to send nurses to look after the wounded on the battlefields and the sick in the hospitals. In the South the women were brave and uncomplaining amidst the great suffering. They were left behind to care for the farms and look after the slaves, in whose fidelity they placed perfect

The women



CONFEDERATE MONEY BECAME WORTHLESS AFTER THE CIVIL WAR

faith. They knitted socks, made shirts, and prepared lint and bandages for the soldiers. They cut up their carpets and curtains to turn them into clothing and comforts for those on the battlefield. They sent their own blankets, bedding, and towels to the hospitals. The women were as brave at home as the soldiers were on the field of battle.

Nor should we forget the faithful conduct of the negroes, and their devotion to those left in their care. Over a million slaves toiled in the fields all day long to make the crops that fed the Southern armies. If they had refused to work, the Southern armies

The negroes during the war

would have starved. If they had risen in insurrection, or threatened the homes of the soldiers, every army would of necessity have been disbanded.

During the war the Confederates in Northern prisons numbered 220,000. The Federals in Southern prisons have been variously estimated from 127,000 to 270,000.

**Prisoners and
prison camps**

At first the prisoners were exchanged man for man, but toward the end of the war the exchange of prisoners was discontinued by the North. Consequently the war prisons North and South became crowded. Disease followed the need of comforts and the lack of care. Sickness and death made every prison a hospital and filled many a grave. The suffering of all prisoners on both sides was distressing.

The suffering in Southern prisons was, of course, unavoidable. The Confederate soldiers in the field were almost unfed and unclothed, and all Federal prisoners were given the same kind and quantity of food and clothing that were issued to the Confederate soldiers. There was no medicine and no nourishing food for the sick. It could not be obtained.

The war finally settled the policy of secession. Henceforth the Union shall be unbroken, the United States shall be one nation, and the people shall have one purpose and one destiny. The nation has outgrown the possibility of division.

The war also settled the question of slavery. Over all our land no man is held in bondage to another. The negroes of the South are free, and master and slave alike are relieved of the burden of ownership.

TOPICS

The Southern States Secede. South Carolina secedes from the Union. Other States secede. Organizing the Confederate States. Taking possession of government property. Reasons for secession. What the South contended. Population of the sections. What the South had to do. Cotton the main hope of the South. What Lincoln said in his inaugural address.

The Beginning of the War. The efforts for peace and their result. The commissioners from South Carolina. Major Anderson at Fort Sumter; demand for surrender; the bombardment; the surrender. Effect of the news upon the country. Volunteers. Other States join the Confederacy. "On to Richmond!" Movements of the armies. The first battle of Manassas or Bull Run. Stonewall Jackson. The retreat. Effect upon the North; effect upon the South.

The War in the West. War plan of the North. Capture of Fort Henry and of Fort Donelson. Unconditional surrender. Battle of Shiloh. Death of Albert Sidney Johnston. Opening the Mississippi to Vicksburg. Bombarding New Orleans; movement of Farragut's fleet; surrender of New Orleans; effect upon the South.

Events on the Sea. The blockade of Southern ports; running the blockade. Mason and Slidell. Stopping the *Trent*. Indignation in England; release of commissioners; result of their mission. The cruise of the *Alabama*; the destruction of the *Alabama*; the claims. Repairing and renaming the *Merrimac*; the attack of the *Virginia* on the Northern fleet; the *Monitor*; the duel of the ironclads; its effect on naval warfare.

The Peninsular Campaign. McClellan and Johnston in Virginia. Advance on Richmond. Battles along the Peninsula. Jackson's Valley campaign; his success in forty days. Robert E. Lee. Stuart rides around McClellan's army. Battles around Richmond; McClellan retires to Harrison's Landing.

Progress of the War. The second battle of Manassas. Lee moves into Maryland. Battle of Antietam or Sharpsburg. Battle of Fredericksburg. Proclamation of Emancipation; Lincoln's object; effect of the Proclamation on the negro. Battle of Chancellorsville; death of Stonewall Jackson.

Crises in the War. Lee's object in invading Pennsylvania. Be-

ginning of the battle of Gettysburg. The attack on Cemetery Hill; Pickett's charge; the bravery of the troops; the repulse; the result of the battle. Conditions in the West. Bragg in Kentucky and Tennessee. The siege of Vicksburg; distress of the people. Service of General Forrest. Surrender of Vicksburg. Opening the Mississippi.

Through the Heart of the South. Battle of Chickamauga. Withdrawal of Bragg into Georgia. General Grant becomes Commander-in-Chief of the Union army; plans two campaigns. Advance of Sherman into Georgia; Johnston's movements; losses. General Hood and his movements. Destruction of Atlanta; the March to the Sea; burning of Columbia.

The End of the War. Movement of Grant's army. Battles in the Wilderness and losses. Battle of Cold Harbor. The mine at Petersburg; the crater. Sheridan in the valley of the Shenandoah. Farragut at Mobile Bay. The blockade grows more rigid; distress of the Southern army. Davis leaves Richmond. Richmond falls into the hands of the Federal forces. Meeting of Lee and Grant; their interview; terms of surrender; Grant's generosity. Dispersal of the troops. Assassination of Lincoln. Capture of Davis; his later years.

Hardships and Heroism. The cost of the war. The numbers engaged; the losses of men. Suffering in the South; destruction of property; scarcity of supplies; cotton clothing. Confederate money. The part women took in the war. The negroes in the war. Prisoners and prison camps. The two questions settled by the war.

SUBJECTS FOR STUDY

Give the reasons why the South felt justified in seceding from the Union. What was Lincoln's opinion regarding the Union, and his purpose regarding the laws? Why is it better to have one government of all the States, than to divide the States into two or more governments? Discuss the advantages of free labor over slave labor.

COMPOSITION

Suppose you had been a Confederate soldier, and write about your experience near the end of the war.

Write a description of the sufferings of the people of Vicksburg during the siege of that city.

Suppose you had been a Union soldier with Sherman on his March to the Sea, and write some of the things you saw and did.

MAP STUDIES

Locate Fort Sumter; Manassas. Trace the progress of the Union victories down the Mississippi River. Locate Hampton Roads. Trace the progress of McClellan's army in the Peninsula. Locate Antietam Creek; Fredericksburg; Chancellorsville; Gettysburg. Trace the progress of Sherman's army from Chattanooga to Atlanta; to Savannah; to Goldsboro.

Collateral Reading. "The Battle Hymn of the Republic," by Julia Ward Howe. "Maryland! My Maryland!" by James R. Randall. "Bonnie Blue Flag," by H. McCarthy. "Stonewall Jackson's Way," by John W. Palmer. "Sheridan's Ride," by Thomas Buchanan Read. "The Old Man and Jim," by James Whitcomb Riley. "The Blue and the Gray," by Frances M. Finch. "Hammer and Rapier," a novel by John Esten Cooke. "Mohun," a novel by John Esten Cooke. "Two Little Confederates," a story by Thomas Nelson Page.

CHAPTER XII

RECONSTRUCTION AND EXPANSION

1. PLANS FOR RECONSTRUCTION

A few hours after the death of Abraham Lincoln, Vice-President Andrew Johnson took the oath of office and became President of the United States.

Like Lincoln himself, President Johnson had come from the common people. He was born in North Carolina, and in early life moved to Tennessee. He had but little education, and that he had gained by his own efforts. It is said that when he married he could scarcely read, and that his wife helped him learn to write.

The great question before the country was what to do with the Southern States. They desired to become again a part of the United States and to have the union of all the States restored. This restoration of the seceded States to their places in the Union was called "reconstruction."

It had been President Lincoln's plan to accomplish this reconstruction with as much ease and with as little delay as possible. He had outlined a generous policy towards the Southern States, maintaining that they never had been really out of the Union, but only "out of practical relations with the government."

President Johnson, under the influence of Lincoln's cabinet, readily undertook to carry out the mild and wise pur-

poses of his predecessor. In **May, 1865**, he issued a proclamation of pardon to nearly all those engaged in the war. There were a few persons excepted, but these could obtain pardon by applying for it.

During the same year Congress proposed the Thirteenth Amendment to the Constitution. This Amendment prohibited slavery everywhere in the United States, and in every place subject to the Constitution of the United States. It was submitted to all the States, and being agreed to by the necessary three-fourths, became part of the Constitution.

Following the advice of the President, most of the Southern States had called conventions, repealed their ordinances of secession, adopted the Thirteenth Amendment to the Constitution, and some of them had declared the war debt null and void. Governments had been organized, and senators and representatives to Congress had been elected. The soldiers had taken the oath of allegiance to the United States government, and all the officials of the States, who were permitted to do so, had accepted pardon from the general government.

In this way the people of the South, instead of sulking over their defeat, came forward manfully and cheerfully, willing to do their part towards restoring the Union.

Congress, however, was not content with the mild measures of the President. There were leaders who thought the South should be considered conquered territory and treated accordingly. Thereupon the newly elected senators and representatives from the Southern States were denied seats in Congress. A committee was appointed to inquire into the condition of the

**The
Thirteenth
Amendment**

**Action of the
Southern
States**

**Attitude of
Congress**

Southern States and to see if any of them were entitled to representation in Congress.

Congress made a number of laws for the protection of the negroes of the South. Among these was a law establishing the Freedmen's Bureau, of which we shall learn more later on.

The most pronounced of the measures, however, was the Fourteenth Amendment to the Constitution, which made the negro a citizen, and extended to him all the protection of the laws. At the same time it placed a penalty on any State that passed laws denying any citizen the right to vote, by reducing the number of representatives which that State should have in Congress in proportion to the persons denied the right of voting. This Amendment was proposed in 1866, but was not declared a part of the Constitution until 1868.

All the Southern States were required to adopt the Fourteenth Amendment before they could be admitted to the Union. Tennessee came forward at once in 1866, and, agreeing to the Amendment, was declared again a member of the United States.

President Johnson was by no means a mild-mannered man. His plans for reconstruction had not been approved by Congress, and thereupon he engaged in a bitter quarrel with the leaders of his party. In political speeches he abused the members of Congress, and spoke with unsparing harshness of the measures they proposed.

Congress proceeded to reconstruct the Southern States upon its own plans. The bills passed for that purpose were promptly vetoed by the President. The measures, however, were at once made laws by being passed over his veto.

The ten Southern States that were still out of the Union were, in 1867, placed under military rule. They were organized into five military districts, in each of which was placed an army with a military governor in command. Within a year and a half seven of the Southern States had agreed to the demands of Congress, had adopted the Fourteenth Amendment, and their representatives had been admitted to Congress.

**Military
command in
the South**

In 1869 Congress proposed the Fifteenth Amendment, designed to secure to the negroes the right to vote. It was submitted to all the States for ratification. It was finally agreed to by the Southern States, and in 1870 was declared part of the Constitution.

**The
Fifteenth
Amendment**

In January, 1871, Georgia, the last State to be reconstructed, was readmitted to the Union.¹

Thus, after four years of war and nearly six years of unhappy quarrels and dissensions, the Southern States were again a part of the Union.

In the meanwhile the quarrel between President Johnson and Congress had deepened, and become very personal. Congress had passed a Tenure of Office Bill which forbade the President to dismiss from office any official of the government whose appointment had been confirmed by the Senate, without first asking the consent of the Senate. The Act was directed at President Johnson, who had requested

¹ Benjamin H. Hill, of Georgia, expressed the sentiment of the Southern people in his speech in Congress on the General Amnesty Bill, when he said:

“There are no Confederates in this house; there are no Confederates anywhere; there are no Confederate schemes, ambitions, hopes, desires or purposes here. But the South is here, and here she intends to remain. The South will never again seek a remedy in the madness of another secession. We are here; we are in the house of our fathers, our brothers are our companions, and we are at home to stay, thank God!”

the resignation of Secretary Stanton from his cabinet, which resignation Stanton had refused to give.

Johnson ignored the Act of Congress and attempted to dismiss Stanton from office. Congress thereupon impeached the President for violating the Constitution, and for not upholding the laws as he had sworn to do in his oath of office. The Senate tries all cases of impeachment, and the Chief Justice presides at the trial. It requires a two-thirds vote of all the senators to convict. The trial of President Johnson lasted nearly two months (1868), and the whole country looked on with deep interest. The ablest lawyers defended him, and the ablest senators opposed him.

The day the vote was counted the galleries were packed with people. Every senator, as the roll was called, stood in his place and voted. As the roll call proceeded the silence was intense. At the end it was found that the President was acquitted by one vote. Thereupon, Secretary Stanton resigned his office.

It was during Johnson's administration (1867) that Alaska was purchased from Russia for \$7,200,000. At that time it was supposed to be only a dreary, ice-locked, mountainous region, fit only for seals and bears. Several congressmen openly opposed the purchase, saying: "What can we do with that refrigerator?" We have since found that Alaska has wonderful mines of gold, and that the seal fisheries alone are worth far more than the land cost us.

The boundary line between Alaska and the British possessions remained uncertain for a number of years after the purchase. When gold was discovered in the Klondike region it became necessary to definitely establish the correct bound-

ary. The United States and Great Britain submitted the matter to a commission, which in 1903 established the boundaries. This line was accepted by both governments.

2. CONDITIONS IN THE SOUTH AFTER THE WAR

The first few years after the war are known as the "Reconstruction Period." In the North business went on as before; in the South people had to face new conditions. The soldier returning home in the South found the slaves free and consequently all labor uncertain and disorganized. In many places, houses, barns, and fences had been burned, and the stock killed. Everywhere conditions were changed, and in addition to all this, Confederate money and securities were worthless.

However, the Southern people set to work to make a harvest and to build up a newer and better state of things upon the ruins of their old labor system.

The negroes were no longer slaves who had to work; they were now free to work or not, as they chose. Most of them stayed on the farms and worked for wages. There were some, however, who wandered idly from place to place, and became a menace to the peace of the country. Soon they had no money, no food, and nobody to care for them. Some of them became vicious, and even thought they could take by force what they needed.

To protect themselves against these idle and lawless negroes, who were often led away by evil white men, a secret order known as the "Ku-Klux Klan" was formed by the white people of the South. Its members met in the woods or on the outskirts of the town. They wore masks and hideous disguises, and had a password and secret signs. Whenever a bad negro or white man began

to give trouble a sign was nailed on his door, or a note was sent to him, ordering him to leave the community or suffer the consequences.

The "Ku-Klux" riders were a great terror to the negroes. Whenever they appeared, the frightened blacks scurried to their cabins. The threats of this organization held the negroes in check, kept them in their houses, forced the evil ones to behave, and made the idle ones work.

The general government took a hand in this state of affairs. The "Freedmen's Bureau" was established. Its purpose was to aid negroes in purchasing lands, to teach them the duties of citizenship, to make them work, to protect them in their contracts, and to provide hospitals for the sick and helpless. Schools were established and teachers employed to teach the negroes to read and write. There was a general desire on the part of right-thinking people everywhere to help the South bear the burden of the negro population, demoralized and helpless in its new-found freedom.

But there were evil influences at work at the same time. Unfortunately, there came into the South many adventurers who saw their chance to make money and get into office by deluding the negroes. They were called "carpet-baggers," because it was said they carried all they had in a carpet-bag. They stirred up the negroes to assert their supposed rights, to get into office, and to make all they could out of the situation.

Not all the people who came South were carpet-baggers, but there were many who came as such, and they made conditions all the more difficult. At a time when the laws excluded many white men from voting and holding office, the negroes were organized into political clubs, and many of

them, as well as many of the carpet-baggers themselves, were elected to high offices.

Negroes who a few years before had been field hands, and who were unable to read or write, now became judges, legislators, and justices of the peace. Every legislature in the South had negro members, and in some States they outnumbered the white members. Old laws were repealed and new ones, calling for the expenditure of large sums of money, were passed. It was a carnival of plunder. Taxes were doubled, while property fell off rapidly in value.

For a number of years this state of misrule and disorder continued. The negroes were influenced by bad white men, and, being ignorant, went into excesses, hardly knowing what harm they were doing.

Probably the most notable of the reconstruction excesses was the condition in South Carolina when the carpet-baggers and the negroes had possession of the legislature. In four years the State debt was increased from five to eighteen million dollars. The taxes increased from half a million to two million dollars. The legislators fitted up the halls with clocks that cost six hundred dollars apiece; with spittoons at eight dollars each; with sofas at two hundred dollars each; with desks at one hundred and seventy-five dollars each; with mirrors at six hundred dollars each. In four years two hundred thousand dollars were spent for furniture, and over one hundred thousand dollars were spent in maintaining a bar and restaurant. Similar conditions prevailed everywhere else in the South.

It has taken many years and much patience to bring order out of this condition. The negroes are being educated in the public and private schools of the South, and in many

splendid academies and industrial colleges and institutes adapted to their needs. They have shown an exceeding eagerness for education, and are willing to endure many hardships for the advantage to be derived from attending school.

As a race they have become hard-working and orderly citizens. They have learned not to expect social equality with white people, but have formed a society of their own and recognize the fact that their future is chiefly in their own hands. They have all the liberty they need to work in any position for which they are fitted. They have the protection of the laws, the good-will of their former masters, and the help of all people everywhere to make of themselves an independent, orderly, and respected race.

3. THE RECONSTRUCTED NATION

In 1869 General U. S. Grant was inaugurated President. In his letter of acceptance of the nomination as a candidate, he said: "Let us have peace!" It was his desire, as it was of all good people, that the nation should recover, as rapidly as possible, from the ravages of war. He was in office for two terms — a period of eight years.

During his first term the Fifteenth Amendment to the Constitution was proposed by Congress and accepted by all the States, and the reconstruction of the Southern States was completed, as we have already learned. The *Alabama* claims were also settled, of which we studied in a former lesson (see page 379).

Chicago fire In October, 1871, the city of Chicago was almost destroyed by fire. For two days the fire raged, burning an area of nearly five square miles. About thirty thousand buildings were burned; one hundred thousand

people were made homeless, and two hundred million dollars' worth of property was destroyed. Chicago is a great and brave city, however, and the fires had not ceased burning before the work of rebuilding began.

During the same year great forest fires raged in the Northwest. Entire villages were swept away, and hundreds of lives were lost. In **November, 1872**, a destructive fire occurred in Boston. Many blocks ^{Boston fire} of business houses were burned and eighty million dollars' worth of property was lost.

To these losses by fire were added the losses by wild speculation and reckless enterprises. Great railroads were building in the West, and many people were in- ^{Panic of} vesting in rash undertakings, hoping to get rich ¹⁸⁷³ quickly. The result is always the same. A large banking house in Philadelphia failed; a panic ensued in **1873** that brought ruin to thousands of business houses, and loss of employment to hundreds of thousands of workmen.

It was an era of fraud as well as of speculation. During President Grant's second term it was discovered that a number of officials in the revenue service had been ^{The Whisky} bribed by the manufacturers of whisky, or the ^{Ring} "Whisky Ring," to defraud the government. Together they had cheated the government out of four million dollars. Grant said with the directness of a soldier, "Let no guilty man escape." Over two hundred persons were convicted and punished.

Other frauds were unearthed. Several members of Congress were accused of accepting bribes from railway companies for their influence in securing favorable legislation. Large blocks of stock were placed "where they would do the most good." Great frauds were discovered in the conduct

of the city government of New York. The guilty parties were all brought to trial and received their just punishment.

The money question demanded consideration. The war had cost large sums, and a great deal of paper money was in circulation. In order to make the paper money of any value, its payment in gold or silver had to be guaranteed by the government. **Resumption of specie payments** Many laws were passed by Congress to meet the situation, the most notable of which was the one of 1875, which declared that all paper money should be redeemed in specie — that is, in gold or silver — when presented at the treasury for that purpose.

This law went into effect in 1879, and was known as “the resumption of specie payments.” Its effect was to make paper money as good as gold or silver.

At the close of Grant’s administration (1876) a Centennial Exposition was held in Philadelphia. It was designed to celebrate the one-hundredth anniversary of the independence of the United States. Every State in the Union, and forty-three countries of the Old World, contributed to make the Fair a magnificent display of the products of field and factory. Millions of visitors viewed the exhibits. It was a convincing evidence that peace and prosperity had returned to the nation.

In this year (1876) Colorado was admitted to the Union. It is called the “Centennial State.”

At the close of President Grant’s term of office the Republican party nominated Rutherford B. Hayes, of Ohio, and the Democratic party nominated Samuel J. **Hayes and Tilden** Tilden, of New York, as candidates for President. The Democrats had great hopes of carrying the election, since they had gained largely in the recent elec-

tions for Congress and were now in control of most of the Southern States.

The election was an exciting one and the result was doubtful. Disputes arose over the votes in South Carolina, Florida, and Louisiana, which States were still under the control of the "carpet-bag" governments. The vote of Oregon was also in dispute. As a result both the Republicans and the Democrats in these States sent returns to Congress, each side claiming the victory.

In Congress, the House of Representatives was Democratic and the Senate was Republican. Naturally, they were unable to agree about these returns. To settle the dispute an Electoral Commission was appointed by Congress, consisting of five members of the House, five members of the Senate, and five Justices of the Supreme Court. Of this Commission eight were Republicans and seven were Democrats.

After investigation, the Commission, by a majority of one vote, declared the Republicans had won in each State where there was a dispute. Congress then announced that Hayes had been elected President for the next four years. He was duly inaugurated **March 4, 1877**.

One of the first acts of President Hayes was to withdraw all Federal troops from the States of South Carolina and Louisiana. In each of these States soldiers had been used to uphold the Republican government, but with the withdrawal of all Federal troops from the South, the rule of the carpet-bagger came to an end, and the white people took charge of the State government. As a result, the Republican governments in the South collapsed, and that section of the country became the "Solid South" for Democratic rule.

In the summer of 1877 great railroad strikes occurred in the Middle and Western States. The coal miners of Pennsylvania joined in the strikes. One hundred and fifty thousand men stopped work. Idleness breeds mischief, and soon the strikers in Pittsburgh began to plunder the freight cars and set fire to the machine shops. As much as ten million dollars' worth of property was destroyed. President Hayes finally sent troops to quell the riots and restore order.

After four years of office President Hayes was succeeded by James A. Garfield, of Ohio, in 1881. Hardly had he begun administration when, in July, standing in the railway station at Washington, he was shot by an assassin who had followed him for months with deadly purpose. In two months he died of his wounds, and Chester A. Arthur, the Vice-President, took the oath of office and became the head of the government.

4. REFORMS AND IMPROVEMENTS

Up to this time it had been the custom of Presidents to reward their friends by giving them offices under the government. The number of office-holders had increased rapidly until nearly one hundred and fifty thousand persons were employed by the government. Many changes occurred with each new administration, greatly to the injury of public business.

It was quite evident that it was bad policy to make so many changes, and besides it laid a heavy burden of responsibility upon each incoming President. In fact, President Garfield had been assassinated by a disappointed office seeker.

To cure these evils and abuses, Congress, in 1883, passed

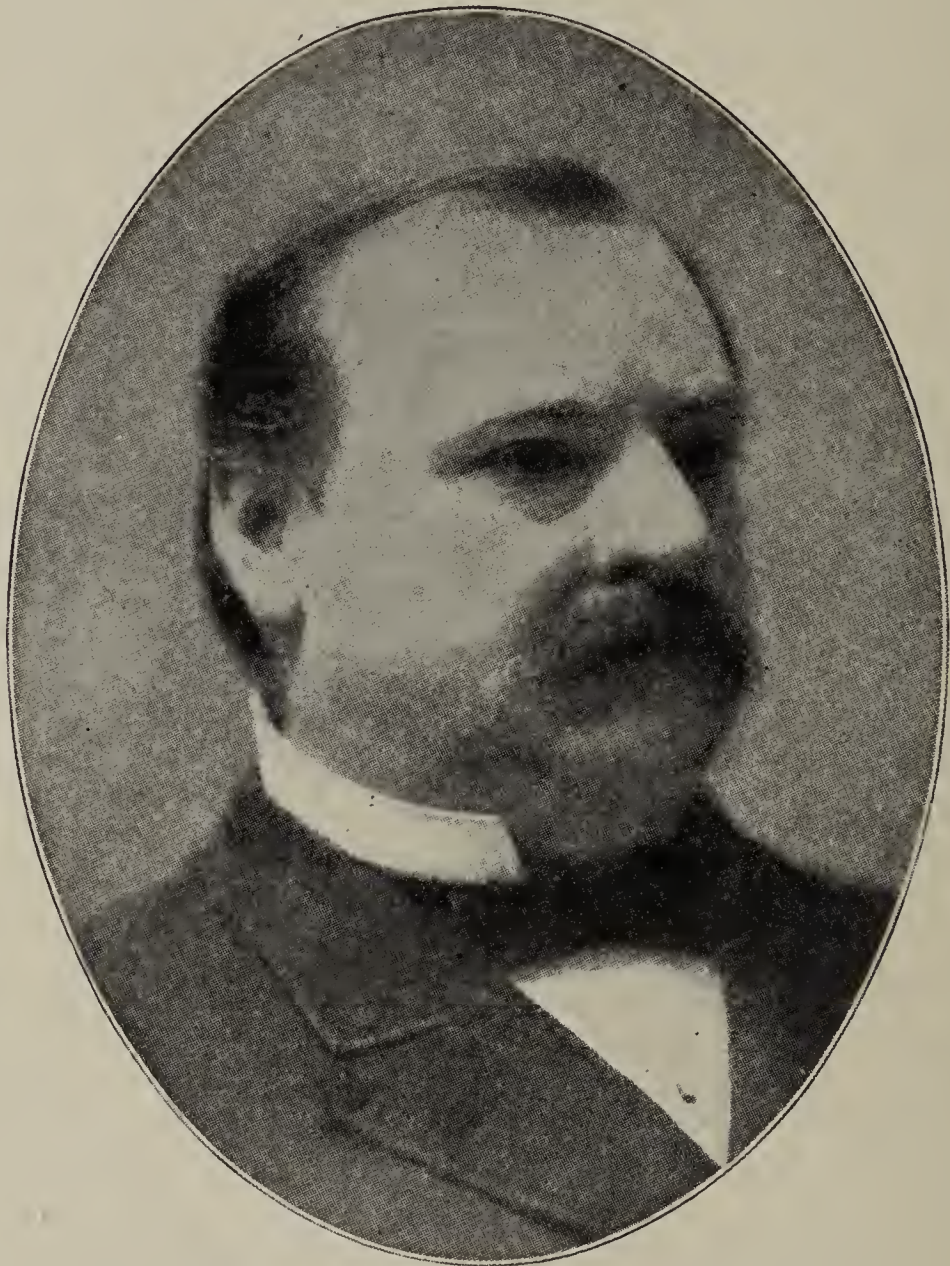
the Civil Service Reform Act. This Act created a Civil Service Commission, whose duty it is to examine all applicants for office and see that they are competent. **Civil service reform**
The Act at first applied to a few positions only, **reform** but it has been extended from time to time until now nearly all the minor positions under the government are subject to its rules. Instead of having thousands of changes when a new President comes into office, only a few important ones are made. Worthy servants of the government have found that a position can be secured only by a strict examination, and retained only by faithful service.

The four years of President Arthur's administration were years of good feeling. Postage was reduced in 1883 from three cents to two cents on ordinary letters. **Two-cent postage**
Whereas it once cost twenty-five cents to carry **postage** a letter a short distance, a letter is now carried across the continent, and even across the ocean, for two cents.

The railroads adopted "Standard time" in 1883, dividing the country into sections of fifteen degrees of longitude, which means an hour's difference in time in **Standard time** each section. When it is twelve o'clock in the **time** New York division it is eleven in the Chicago division, ten in the Salt Lake division, and nine in the San Francisco division.

Since 1861 all the Presidents had been elected by the Republican party; but dissatisfaction with the tariff had been steadily increasing, and the Democrats stood for **Grover Cleveland, President** tariff reform. In the general election of 1884 the **President** Democratic party was triumphant, and in **March, 1885**, Grover Cleveland, of New York, was inaugurated President. He was the first Democratic President in twenty-four years.

Shortly after his inauguration, Vice-President Thomas A. Hendricks, of Indiana, died. Congress saw the necessity of



GROVER CLEVELAND

providing a new law for the succession to the Presidency in case of the death of both President and Vice-President, in order to keep the head of the government of the same political party as the one who had been elected. In 1886 a bill was passed providing that the succession should go to the members of the cabinet in order,

beginning with the Secretary of State. Since the President appoints the members of the cabinet they will almost certainly be of his political party.

In the same year the statue of "Liberty Enlightening the World" was unveiled on Bedloe's Island, New York Harbor. It was the gift of the people of France to the people of the United States, and was a grateful recognition of the affection that the American people had for Lafayette. As ships enter the noble harbor of our great



STATUE OF LIBERTY, NEW YORK HARBOR

Atlantic port, this majestic statue greets them with uplifted hand, as if welcoming all who come to the Land of Liberty.

Among the acts of Cleveland's administration was the establishment of the Interstate Commerce Commission, in 1887. The purpose of this Act was to regulate passenger and freight rates between States. It sought to avoid unfair discrimination by the railroads between different persons and different places.

Interstate
Commerce
Commission

Congress also tried to keep crowds of Chinese laborers from coming to our shores. They were arriving by the thousand, and offering their labor cheaper than Americans could afford to offer theirs. It was said that a Chinaman could live on what an American would throw away. In 1888 a bill was passed excluding Chinese immigrants; but it has been very difficult to enforce, since the shrewd Oriental now lands in Canada and easily finds his way across the border.

Chinese
exclusion

August 31, 1886, the people of the city of Charleston, South Carolina, were aroused by terrible shocks of an earthquake. Houses were thrown down, railroad tracks were twisted into all sorts of shapes, and from cracks in the earth oozed soft mud of a peculiar color. The panic-stricken people sought refuge in the parks and fields, and for days many could not be induced to return to their houses. Many lives were lost, and much damage to property was sustained. The shocks were felt for hundreds of miles in all directions, but elsewhere they were not so severe as in Charleston.

Charleston
earthquake

Twenty years had passed since the war, and about half of the war debt had been paid. The government was accumulating more money by the tariff laws than appeared necessary. A large surplus was on hand. The country was divided as to whether the tariff should be reduced or the surplus spent in public improvements and in education.

President Cleveland, following the history of the Democratic party, sent a message to Congress advocating the reduction of the tariff, making it less of a protective tariff and more nearly a tariff for revenue. The manufacturers opposed the measure strongly. The Senate rejected a bill introduced for that

Tariff revision
proposed

purpose. It now became an issue in the next Presidential campaign.

Cleveland was the nominee of his party. Benjamin Harrison, of Indiana, was the candidate of the Republican party. The election was entirely along the lines of tariff reform. Cleveland was defeated, and in 1889 Harrison was inaugurated President.

President Harrison held office for four years, from 1889 to 1893. At the beginning of his administration a great Pan-American Congress was held in Washington, **Pan-American Congress** composed of delegates from the United States, Mexico, Central America, and most of the republics of South America. The purpose of this Congress was to consider matters that concerned the independent American governments.

The most important result of the Congress was an agreement that all disputes between these governments should be settled by arbitration and not by war. This was a great advance in civilization. It is to be hoped that all nations will finally agree to this method of settling their differences.

In 1890 Congress passed the McKinley Tariff Bill. This law provided among other things that articles in the free list should be taxed, if the countries from which they came laid duties on products of the same **McKinley Tariff Bill** kind exported from our country. This provision was known as the "Reciprocity Agreement."

About this time there arose another party known as "The People's Party." It was in favor of the free and unlimited coinage of silver, an income tax, the government ownership of railroads and telegraph lines, and was opposed to State banks.

After Harrison's term of office expired he was defeated

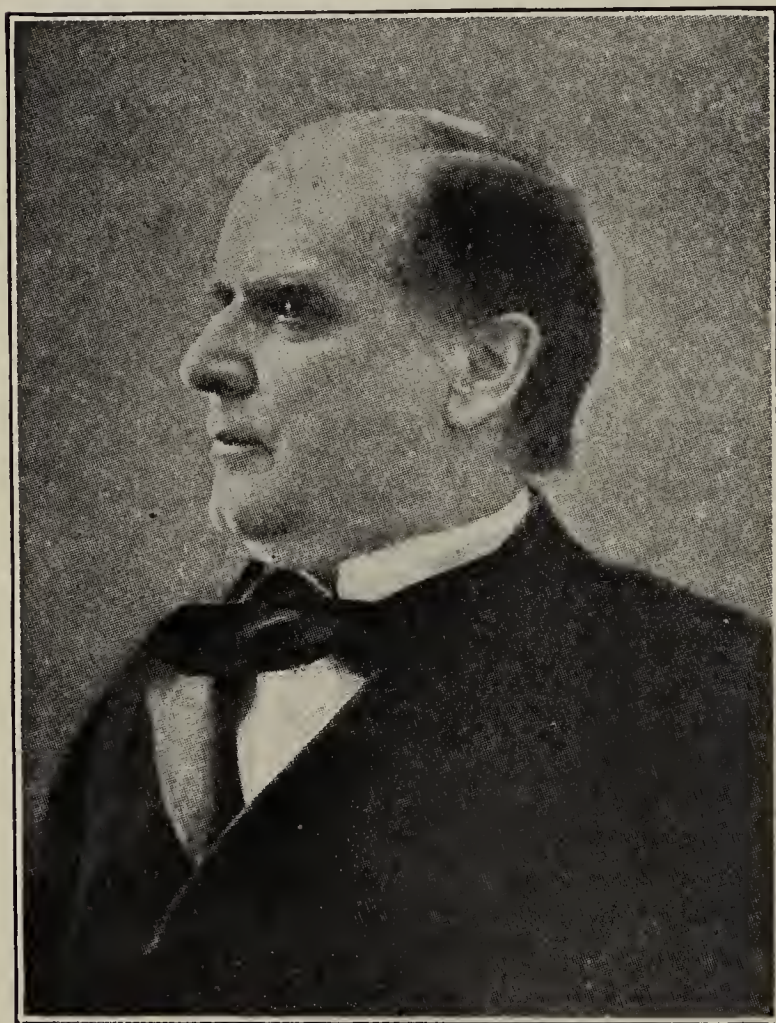
by Grover Cleveland, who for the second time became the Democratic President. Cleveland was inaugurated in 1893. During his second term the tariff was again revised by what was known as the "Wilson Bill," which greatly reduced the duties on imports.

Grover
Cleveland,
President

The country turned aside from political affairs for a while to celebrate the four-hundredth anniversary of the discovery of America by a World's Fair, held in Chicago in 1893. Congress appropriated ten

The World's
Columbian
Exposition

million dollars, and Chicago spent large sums to make the Fair a success. It was a wonderful display of mighty industries. The "White City" covered many acres. The buildings were daily thronged with thousands of delighted people. By night the grounds glowed with thousands of electric lights. It will ever remain in memory as one of the greatest exhibitions that the world has ever known.



WILLIAM MCKINLEY

The tariff and the money question again became the political issues. The country as usual was divided on both. The great issue was between the gold standard only, or a

free and unlimited coinage of silver as well. The Republicans advocated a high tariff and the gold standard only. In 1896 William McKinley, of Ohio, the Republican candidate, was elected over William J. Bryan, the standard bearer of the Democrats.

William
McKinley,
President

5. THE WAR WITH SPAIN

The island of Cuba had belonged to Spain for many years, but its people had been so oppressed by harsh laws that they had frequently risen in rebellion. In 1895 a very determined insurrection began. "Free Cuba" was the cry of the inhabitants. Spain resolved to put down the insurgents with a harsh and vigorous policy, and a large army was sent over under Spanish officers who treated the Cubans with great cruelty.

Rebellion
in Cuba

Houses and growing crops were destroyed. The Cubans who were not engaged in the rebellion were penned up in filthy camps, where thousands died of starvation and disease. The condition of Cuba was pitiable. The Spanish general, Weyler, became known as "The Butcher."

President McKinley, of the United States, demanded the release of all Americans who had been made prisoners, and requested Spain promptly to relieve the distressing condition of the people of Cuba. The general demand was that Spain should at once end the rebellion in a humane way, else the United States would take the part of the Cubans.

February 15, 1898, the battleship *Maine*, in the harbor of Havana, on a peaceable mission, was blown up by an explosion, and nearly three hundred of the crew were killed. It was not proved that this was done by Spanish agents, but it was generally suspected that they were responsible for the disaster.

Destruction
of the
Maine

President McKinley saw that the time had come for the United States to act. In **April** he sent a message to Congress, saying: "In the name of humanity, in the name of civilization, in behalf of endangered American interests, the war in Cuba must stop!" Shortly afterwards war was declared against Spain and the country was put on a war footing. The President called

War with
Spain
declared

War with
Spain
declared



THE BATTLESHIP "MAINE" LYING IN HAVANA HARBOR

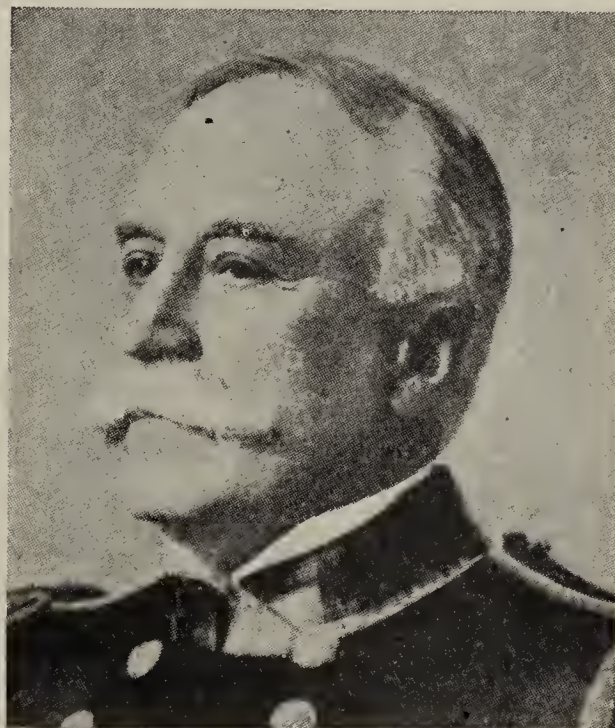
for one hundred and twenty-five thousand volunteer soldiers. The response was immediate. From North, South, East, and West came hosts of applications to enlist for the war. Camps were organized, supplies made ready, officers appointed, and a vigorous campaign against Spain was planned. General Joseph Wheeler and General Fitz-Hugh

Lee, who had been gallant Confederate leaders, were among those made Major-Generals.

Captain Sampson and Commodore Schley were sent to blockade the Cuban harbors, and Commodore George Dewey, who was in command of the American fleet at Hong Kong, was ordered to find the Spanish fleet at the Philippine Islands and destroy it.

On the night of **April 30, 1898**, the squadron under Dewey moved into Manila Bay. All lights were out, and the shore batteries of the enemy did not discover the passing ships. The men slept by their guns. When day dawned they awoke with the Spanish fleet in sight, and raised the cry: "Remember the *Maine!*"

The battle began early, and continued two hours. Then the Americans stopped firing, ate breakfast, and started again. In another hour and a quarter the battle was over. Eleven Spanish vessels and one transport were destroyed, and many of the enemy were killed. Not a single American was lost, and only eight were wounded. The



COMMODORE GEORGE DEWEY

Spaniards were no match for the Americans. Their ships were inferior, their guns were poor, and they could not fire with accuracy. It was a great naval victory, and ended the war in the East.

One of the notable occurrences of the time was the voy-

age of the battleship *Oregon* from San Francisco around Cape Horn to Key West. The long voyage was begun soon after the destruction of the *Maine*. For two months the commander kept on his course, apprehensive of attack by the Spanish fleet. The vessel reached its destination safely, however, amid the plaudits of the nation.

In the meantime Admiral Cervera, the Spanish commander, had left the Cape Verde Islands, with a fleet of



THE WEST INDIES

war vessels, and had taken refuge in the harbor of Santiago de Cuba. After the discovery of the presence of the Spanish fleet, the combined fleets of Sampson and Schley blockaded the harbor closely.

Sampson conceived the plan of sinking a vessel across the channel of the harbor of Santiago so that the enemy's ships could not get out. Lieutenant Richmond P. Hobson undertook the task. One morning he, with a few companions, took a coal ship named the *Merrimac* up the harbor, and in the full blaze of the enemy's guns, and in spite of the danger from the explosives with which the harbor was lined, sank the ship. Unfortunately the fire of the enemy's guns had disabled the steering gear

of the *Merrimac*, so that she was not sunk in a place that seriously obstructed the harbor.

Hobson and his men escaped on rafts to the nearest Spanish vessels and gave themselves up as prisoners of war. They were courteously treated by the Spanish commander, and word was sent to Sampson that they were safe.

To attack Santiago from the rear, Major-General William R. Shafter landed on the southern coast of Cuba and with sixteen thousand men marched up the hills of El Caney and San Juan. The Americans charged the hills, singing patriotic songs as they advanced.

El Caney and
San Juan,
July 1, 1898

The assault was desperate, but the forts were carried with but little loss of life. Conspicuous among the leaders was Colonel Theodore Roosevelt, with the "Rough Riders," of whom he was in command.

Santiago was doomed, and Cervera's fleet was in danger. On **July 3** he made a dash for liberty. The American ships were in waiting, and as the Spanish vessels slipped out they were pursued and easily destroyed. Six hundred Spaniards were killed or drowned and Cervera made prisoner. The American loss was one killed. Santiago soon surrendered, and the war was over. It had lasted about three months.

A treaty of peace was signed at Paris, **December 10, 1898**, by which Spain agreed to evacuate the island of Cuba, surrender the islands of Porto Rico and the Philippines to the United States, and also the island of Guam in the Pacific Ocean. The United States agreed to pay Spain the sum of twenty million dollars.

Treaty of
peace

One result of this war was to make the nation forget its past differences in the face of a common enemy. Soldiers and officers from the North and South fought side by side. Then, the way the soldiers suffered for food and medicine

showed that it was as important to protect men in the camp as it was to arm them for the battle. For every man killed in battle in the Spanish War there were nine who died from disease in the hospitals.

Results of
the war

Hawaii had already been annexed to the United States in 1898, and now that the Philippines had come into its possession there arose a new sentiment among the people in favor of territorial expansion. Like other nations, the United States undertook to have possessions in distant parts of the world.¹

Territorial
expansion

The exploits of our battleships raised us to the rank of a first-class power, and showed to the world that hereafter in the settlement of questions in which great nations were involved, the United States was a power that had to be reckoned with.

The treaty of peace with Spain had hardly been signed before the inhabitants of the Philippine Islands rose against

¹ The Hawaiian Islands were annexed to the United States in 1898. They are the most important group in the mid-Pacific. The twelve islands have a population of over one hundred thousand people, many of whom are Americans. The harbor of Honolulu affords a splendid station for coal and supplies for war vessels crossing the ocean.

The Philippines consist of many hundreds of islands, most of which are very small, and some are without names. The population numbers about eight million, of which about thirty thousand were Europeans at the time of the cession of the islands to the United States. Luzon is the largest island, on which is situated Manila, the chief city, with a population of about a quarter of a million. The islands produce tobacco, sugar, hemp, coffee, and rice.

Porto Rico in the West Indies has nearly one million people, mostly negroes. Guam, which is the principal island in the Ladrone group, has only about ten thousand people, mostly settlers from the Philippines. The island is small, probably not more than one hundred miles in circumference. The United States also owns Wake Island, on the direct route from Hawaii to Hong Kong. In 1899, by treaty with Great Britain and Germany, the United States came into control of one of the islands in the Samoan group. In case of war all these possessions afford excellent harbors and coaling stations for our naval forces.

the United States, declaring that they wanted independence — not a new master.

The insurgents were led by a young native named Aguinaldo. The war soon assumed the nature of guerrilla warfare, very annoying and distressing to the American troops. President McKinley increased the army in the Philippines to sixty-five thousand men. Hundreds of small battles were fought. The American soldiers had no difficulty in defeating the poorly armed natives, whenever and wherever small bodies of them could be found, but the hot climate, malarial swamps, and dense jungles brought much hardship and great distress to our troops.

The war was finally brought to a close by the capture of Aguinaldo in **March, 1901**. He took the oath of allegiance to the United States and advised his countrymen to do the same. By the close of the year over seven hundred of the Philippine towns had accepted civil government, and the insurrection came to an end.

In the meantime President McKinley had appointed a civil commission to aid the army in the government of the islands. In **July, 1901**, a civil government was established, under whose administration the islands have been much improved. New roads



THE PHILIPPINE ISLANDS

Government
of the
Philippines

New roads

have been built, wise laws have been made for the towns, schools have been established, and many American teachers have been sent out to teach the natives.

The question of the disposition of Cuba now arose. We were pledged to the independence of that island, but it was evident that the natives were not yet prepared for self-government. The War Department took temporary possession of Cuba. A commission, composed of American and Cuban citizens, was appointed to improve the laws, to organize city governments, to establish schools, to provide for taxation, and to prepare the people for independence.

In **February, 1901**, a constitution was adopted by the Cubans, and a president was elected. In **May, 1902**, the Cuban Republic was organized, the administration of the affairs of the island was turned over to President Palma, and Cuba was left to govern itself as an independent nation.

Across the ocean two events happened at the end of the century, both of which are of interest to Americans. One was the Peace Conference, of delegates from all nations, held at The Hague, in Holland, at the suggestion of the Czar of Russia. The first conference began in **May, 1899**. The Hague Tribunal was organized in the interest of peace the world over. To this tribunal were to be referred certain kinds of disputes between civilized nations, in order to avoid war and bloodshed.

The other event was the great uprising in China in **1900**, on the part of a secret society known as the Boxers. Their purpose was to drive all foreigners out of the country. The foreigners were shut up in Peking and fiercely attacked by the Chinese insurgents. Several nations promptly sent armies to their rescue. American

troops were dispatched from Manila. Peking was besieged and stormed by the allied armies, and the besieged ministers and foreigners set free. The Chinese government had to pay heavy damages for the loss of life and property. This event is known as the "Boxer Uprising."

Thus we see the United States establishing a firm government at home, expanding its territory and influence, and taking rank as one of the great powers of the world.

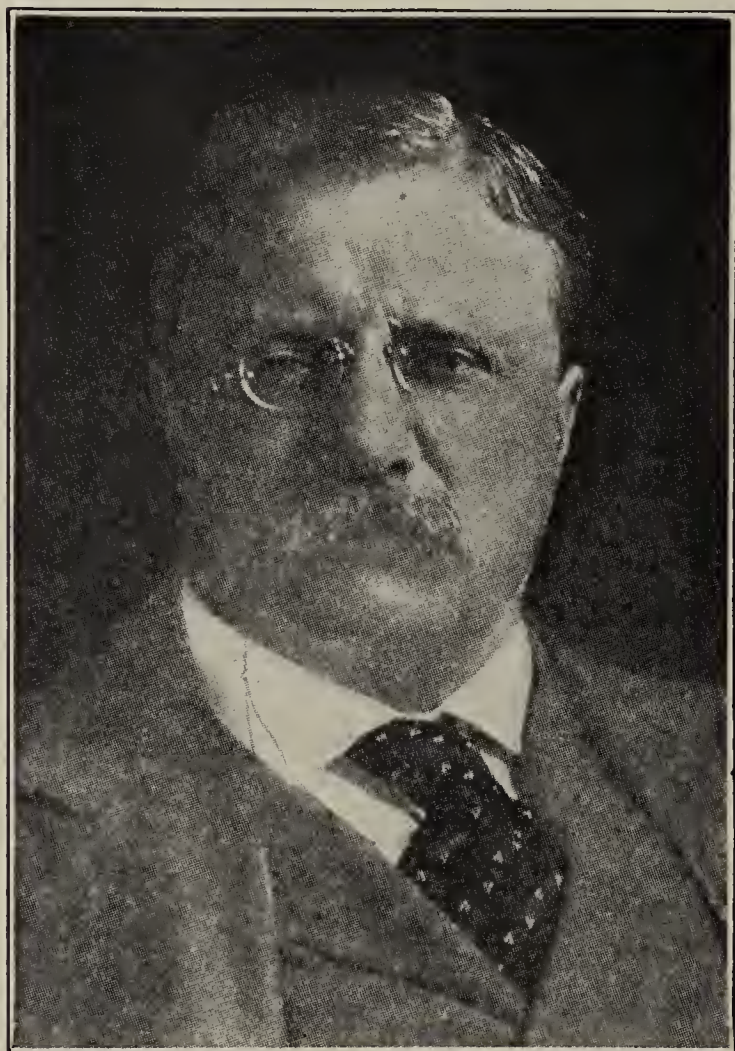
6. RECENT POLITICAL EVENTS

In 1900 President McKinley was a candidate of the Republican party for reelection. Opposed to him was William J. Bryan, the nominee of the Democratic party. The Republicans were victorious, and McKinley was reelected for another term.

A few months after he had been inaugurated he attended the Pan-American Exposition at Buffalo. He had made a speech full of patriotism and good will, and was shaking hands with the people when he was shot by an assassin, who held a revolver concealed by a handkerchief in his hand. **September 14, 1901**, McKinley died, the third martyr-President, loved and honored as the others had been.

On the day of McKinley's death, Theodore Roosevelt, of New York, the Vice-President, took the oath of office and became the head of the nation. The new President had already attracted attention for his vigorous policies as a public official in his own State and in Washington, and as a soldier in Cuba. He entered heartily into all great American enterprises, had definite opinions on all subjects, and undertook the duties of his office with independence and zeal.

In the summer of 1902 occurred the great strike of the miners in the anthracite regions of Pennsylvania. Nearly one hundred and fifty thousand workmen were involved. The strike lasted five months, during



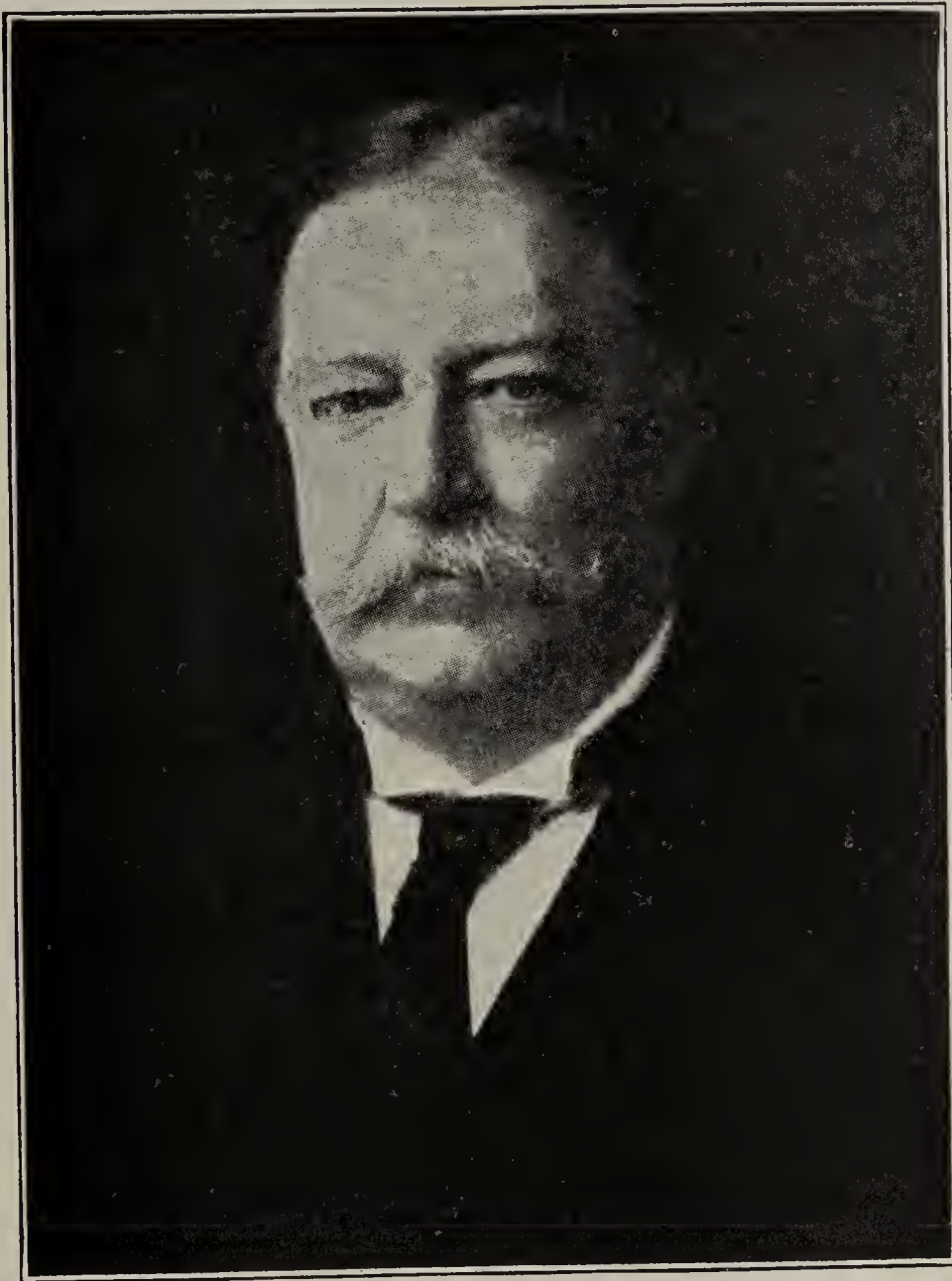
THEODORE ROOSEVELT

which period the mines were closed, manufactories had to stop, and a coal famine existed that brought great distress to the people. President Roosevelt interposed with a suggestion that the claims of the miners be submitted to arbitration. This was done, and after an exhaustive investigation an agreement was reached that was accepted by all parties concerned.

A great war between Russia and Japan occupied the attention of the world during the administration of President Roosevelt. After many months of warfare, many desperate battles, and great loss of life and property on both sides, President Roosevelt offered his services as peacemaker between the two countries. At his suggestion a conference was held by the representatives of both nations at Portsmouth, New Hampshire, and a treaty of peace was signed that ended the war.

Treaty of
Portsmouth

In the election for President in 1908, William H. Taft, of Ohio, the Republican candidate, was chosen over William J. Bryan, who was again the nominee of the Democratic party.



WILLIAM H. TAFT

In 1912 Woodrow Wilson, the candidate of the Democratic party, was elected President, defeating both William H. Taft, Republican, and Theodore Roosevelt, Progressive. He was reelected in 1916 over Charles E. Hughes, of New York.

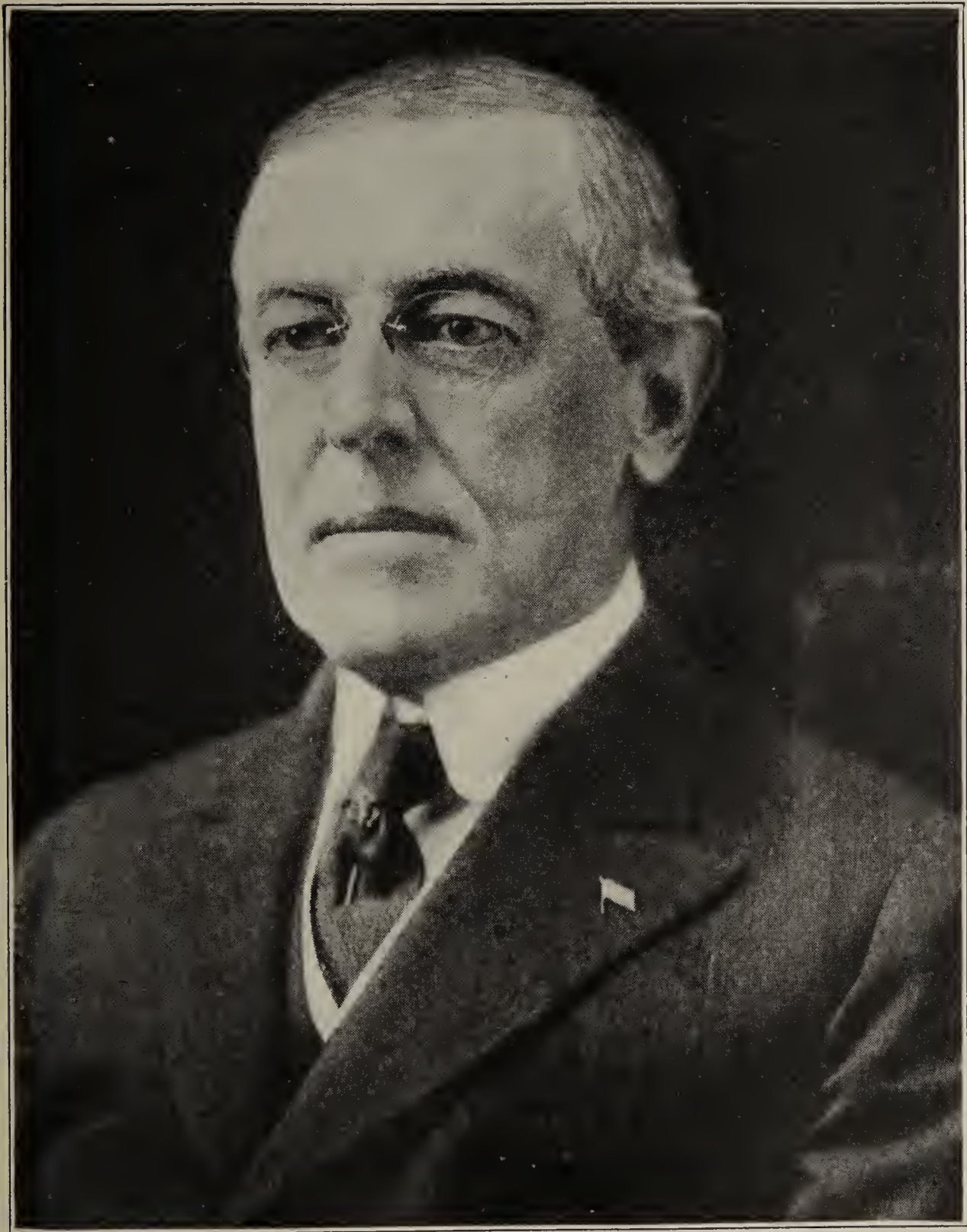
Upon assuming office in 1913 President Wilson called Congress into extra session for the enactment of a new tariff law.

Important legislation Substantial reductions were made in the rates on such articles as wool and woolen goods, cotton goods, agricultural products, sugar, farm implements, and many household necessities. These changes were designed to benefit the people at large and to reduce excessive profits of manufacturers. The loss in revenue to the government was offset by a tax on large incomes.

The Federal Reserve Act of 1913 established twelve regional banks under a Federal Reserve Board. These banks provide a flexible currency. When business needs more money, they issue reserve notes to meet the demand. But when the need is past, these notes are retired so that business may not be injured by too much available money. The Federal Farm Loan Act of 1916 does for the farmer what the Reserve Act does for business. By providing long-time loans at a reasonable rate of interest it enables the farmer to borrow money for improvements which require a number of years to make them pay for themselves.

In the Act regulating the Panama Canal there was a provision of the law which exempted American vessels engaged in coastwise trade from paying tolls. This exemption was held by Great Britain and by many of our own public men as a violation of our treaty with Great Britain. President Wilson secured the repeal of this exemption clause in 1914.

Other important legislation Other important legislation was that admitting foreign-built ships to American registry under certain conditions; building a government railroad in Alaska; authorizing the President to use the army and navy, if neces-



WOODROW WILSON

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sary, for commercial reprisals against countries which discriminate against American commerce; and an eight-hour working-day law for railway employees in interstate transportation.

The most serious problems of President Wilson's Administration were to avoid entanglements with foreign nations in **Troubles with Mexico** their revolutions and wars. He was confronted immediately by the revolution in Mexico. He declined to recognize any of the revolutionary parties or leaders, preferring that Mexico should settle her own questions.

In **1914** the Mexican authorities seized a number of American sailors from a navy launch at Tampico. The sailors were promptly released, but the American admiral demanded that a salute to the American flag should be fired by way of apology. This the **War with Mexico threatened** Mexicans refused to do, and President Wilson ordered a concentration of naval forces in Mexican waters. Vera Cruz was seized, and war between the two countries became imminent. At this juncture the countries of Argentina, Brazil, and Chile offered to act as mediators in effecting a settlement between Mexico and the United States. Agreements were reached through their mediation, by which war was happily averted.

The situation again became acute in **1916** when a rebel leader named Villa with a band of outlaws made murderous **Punishing the Mexican marauders** raids upon the border towns of Texas and New Mexico and threatened the lives and property of American citizens. President Wilson thereupon ordered an expeditionary force under General Pershing to enter Mexico for the purpose of pursuing and punishing the marauders. After many months and much anxiety

the American forces, by agreement, were withdrawn from Mexico.

The growth of the sentiment in favor of prohibition has been rapid in late years. Many States passed local option laws by which any city or county in the State was allowed to exclude the sale of intoxicating liquors within its limits. From that method the resort to State-wide prohibition was rapid, especially in the South and West. By 1918 more than half of the States had in force State-wide prohibitory liquor laws.

Growth of
prohibition
sentiment

The Prohibition party and the Anti-Saloon League of America began working for national prohibition. The outbreak of the World War and the entrance of the United States into the struggle strengthened the position of the prohibitionists, since it was made a punishable offense to sell intoxicating liquors to soldiers or sailors.

In 1917 a resolution was passed by Congress submitting to the States an Amendment to the Constitution prohibiting the manufacture, sale, or transportation of intoxicating liquors anywhere in the United States, or in any territory subject to the jurisdiction of the United States. In 1919 this proposed Amendment was ratified by more than three-fourths of the States and was declared to be a law of the land. In January, 1920, the country entered upon the condition of nation-wide prohibition.

The
Eighteenth
Amendment

The movement for granting the right of suffrage to women has gained steadily in favor, especially during the last few years. As far back as 1647 Margaret Brent, of Maryland, demanded but did not receive "place and voice" in the legislature of that State. It is said that the wife of John Adams told her husband, "if women are not represented in this new republic there will be another Revolution."

In 1848 the first Woman's Rights Convention was held at Seneca Falls, N. Y., in which there was a strong demonstration in favor of giving women the right of the ballot. After the Civil War the cause was led by Susan B. Anthony and later on by Dr. Anna Howard Shaw, both of whom spent a large part of their time addressing the public and sending out literature on the subject of the rights of women.

Gradually the cause attracted attention and recognition. Women began to occupy positions in business, and in the professions, until at last nearly every occupation was open to them. The States, especially in the West, began to grant women the right to vote. By 1919 there were twenty-nine States that granted Woman Suffrage, some States granting full privileges to vote, others the right with restriction.

The advocates of suffrage for a number of years had been urging an Amendment to the Constitution allowing women to vote. Susan B. Anthony had prepared an Amendment which read, "The right of citizens of the United States to vote shall not be denied by the United States or by any State on account of sex." This Amendment has been called the "Susan B. Anthony Amendment."

This Amendment was introduced into Congress in 1878. After debate and defeat for a number of years it was finally passed **June 4, 1919**, and submitted to the States for ratification.

TOPICS

Plans for Reconstruction. Andrew Johnson becomes President; his early life. The question of reconstruction; Lincoln's plan. Proclamation of pardon. The Thirteenth Amendment. The action of the

Southern States. The attitude of Congress. The Fourteenth Amendment; what was required of the Southern States; action of Tennessee. Johnson's quarrel with Congress. Military command in the South. The Fifteenth Amendment. Tenure of Office Bill. Impeachment and trial of President Johnson; the result. The purchase of Alaska.

Conditions in the South after the War. What the returning Southern soldier found at home. The negroes after the war. The Ku-Klux Klan; the riders. The Freedman's Bureau; its purposes; schools for negroes. The carpet-baggers and their influence. The rule of the carpet-baggers. Conditions in South Carolina. Negroes of today.

The Reconstructed Nation. Grant becomes President. The burning of Chicago; other destructive fires. Speculation and panic of 1873. The Whisky Ring; punishing the offenders. Other frauds and offenders. The resumption of specie payment. Centennial Exposition. Admission of Colorado. Hayes and Tilden; the Electoral Commission; their award. Withdrawal of troops from South Carolina and Louisiana. Strikes and riots. Garfield becomes President; his assassination and successor.

Reforms and Improvements. Government employees and changes; Civil Service Reform Act; its benefits. Two-cent postage. Standard time. Cleveland becomes President. Reforms in the law of Presidential succession. Statue of Liberty. Interstate Commerce Commission. Chinese exclusion. The Charleston earthquake. Revising the tariff. Harrison becomes President. Pan-American Congress; its result. McKinley Tariff Bill; its provisions. Cleveland becomes President a second time. The World's Fair.

The War with Spain. Rebellion in Cuba; policy of Spain; harsh measures. Destruction of the *Maine*. War with Spain declared; preparation; dispatching the fleets. Battle of Manila Bay; result. Voyage of the *Oregon*. Blockade of Spanish fleet in Santiago de Cuba. Exploit of Hobson. Attacking Santiago from the rear. Cervera's dash for liberty; the result. Treaty of peace. Results of the war. Territorial expansion. War in the Philippines; its progress; its end. Improvement of the Philippines. Disposition of Cuba. The Hague Tribunal. The Boxer uprising.

Recent Political Events. Assassination of McKinley. Theodore Roosevelt becomes President. Strike of the miners in Pennsylvania; how settled. War between Russia and Japan; how settled. William

H. Taft. Woodrow Wilson. New tariff laws of 1913; income tax. Federal Reserve banks. Federal Farm Loan Act. Panama Canal legislation; other important legislation. The revolution in Mexico. How war with Mexico was averted. Progress of prohibition sentiment. The Prohibition Amendment to the Constitution. Woman suffrage.

SUBJECTS FOR STUDY

What is your opinion of the wisdom of the Fifteenth Amendment at the time it was made? Discuss the necessity and effect of the Ku-Klux Klan. Discuss the merits of the Civil Service Reform Act. Is it wise or unwise to exclude the Chinese from America? Why was the war with Spain so short? Discuss the foolish policy of oppressive colonial measures.

COMPOSITION

Write a description of a carpet-bagger and his supposed speech to a crowd of negroes.

Suppose you were with Hobson in the sinking of the *Merrimac*, and write your experiences.

MAP QUESTIONS

Compare the size of Alaska with that of the United States.

Locate Manila Bay. Locate Havana; Santiago de Cuba; the Hawaiian Islands; Porto Rico; Guam; Wake Islands; The Samoan group.

Collateral Reading. "The Centennial Hymn," by John G. Whittier.

CHAPTER XIII

ENTERPRISES, INVENTIONS, AND INDUSTRIES

1. GREAT AMERICAN ENTERPRISES

We have learned of the invention of the electric telegraph in 1837. By 1860 every State in the Union and nearly all the nations of the Old World were sending messages over the land. Morse had predicted that the time would come when electric messages would be sent across the ocean.

Commodore Maury, who had studied the bottom of the ocean, suggested to Cyrus W. Field, of New York, that an electric cable could be laid along the tableland ^{The Atlantic} under the Atlantic Ocean and thus connect the ^{cable} Old and the New World. In 1857 the first cable was started, but after three hundred miles had been laid at a cost of a half-million dollars, the cable parted. In 1858 Field succeeded in laying a cable across the ocean; and Queen Victoria, of England, and President Buchanan exchanged greetings.

In about a month the cable ceased working, the Civil War came on, and nothing more was done until 1865. A cable was then laid halfway across the ocean, when it broke, and the cable was lost on the bottom of the sea. Field was not dismayed. When asked what he was going to do, he answered, "Go to work and lay another!"

A monster ship called the *Great Eastern* was used to carry the material for finding the lost cable. At length the lost cable was found, dragged by hooks from the bottom of the sea, the end spliced to another cable, and the work went on.

Slowly it was unwound over the ocean bed until, **July 27, 1866**, communication between the Old and the New World was established. It has not since been interrupted. Field had worked thirteen years and spent a great deal of money, but he had succeeded.

More than a dozen cables now cross the Atlantic. Cables also cross the Pacific Ocean; and telegraph lines stretch across all continents and into nearly all countries. Messages can be sent around the world in a few hours. Every morning the papers furnish us with an account of what has happened in every part of the world.

Other great enterprises are worthy of note. The long suspension bridge over the East River, connecting New York and Brooklyn, was completed in **1883**. It cost nearly fifteen million dollars, is over a mile long, and took fourteen years to build. The towers at either end are three hundred feet high, and the cables are over a foot thick. Other bridges have since been built at even a greater cost, and of larger dimensions.

The opening of the oil fields of Pennsylvania beginning in **1859** is one of the great achievements of modern times. Oil wells were sunk, and the crude natural oil pumped out of the earth in immense quantities. Other oil fields were discovered in Ohio, Oklahoma, California, and Texas, as well as in other States. There were also immense oil fields in Mexico. Companies have been formed to handle the product, refine it, and ship it to all parts of the world.

At the present day there are over two hundred thousand oil wells in the United States, yielding nearly four hundred millions of barrels a year, or two-thirds the world's output of oil. There are thirty thousand miles of pipe lines, through

which the crude oil is pumped from the wells to refineries or to the seaboard for shipment abroad. Over three hundred different products are obtained from crude oil, or petroleum as this is called, notably gasoline, kerosene, and lubricating and fuel oils.

In the use of steel and iron for the construction of buildings, bridges, and ships, the great foundries of America are creating a world's industry. In our large cities tall buildings with steel frames are being constructed of twenty to thirty stories and some of as many as forty to fifty stories, and all the way from three hundred to seven hundred feet in height.



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WOOLWORTH BUILDING

These are called "skyscrapers," and are almost entirely American in their design and construction.

The greatest achievement in New York skyscrapers is the Woolworth Building. It has 55 stories, and rises to a height of 793 feet. Its foundations go 130 feet in the ground. It is the tallest inhabited building in the world.

In fact the enterprise of the people of America halts at no undertaking, no matter how great. The vast power of Niagara Falls is being converted by machinery into electric power and distributed to cities many miles distant; underground railways and overhead railways transport the people of our large cities to and from their business; tunnels are being built under rivers and through mountains to gain a quicker connection between our cities; railroads are crossing mountains and plains and penetrating forests to develop the great industries of the country.

We have many wonderful things our grandfathers never dreamed of and would have laughed at if they had been suggested. Every day is adding comforts to our homes and conveniences to our business.

The greatest enterprise which has claimed the attention of the American people in recent times has been the construction of the Panama Canal — a canal to save ships sailing from ocean to ocean the long and expensive journey around Cape Horn. This vast undertaking was under consideration for more than fifty years. A treaty between England and the United States had been made before the Civil War, looking to the construction of an interoceanic canal, but its terms were not satisfactory and the project was allowed to drop.

In 1881 a French company undertook to build a canal across Panama. Great sums of money were spent, but

Other enter-
prises

A Panama
canal pro-
posed

after several years of work the company failed and all labor on the canal ceased. While the French were working at Panama, the United States was investigating the question of a canal at Nicaragua. There were many who favored the Nicaragua route, but the failure of the French company developed the possibility of the United States purchasing their rights and continuing their work at Panama.

The Panama route was considered best. It is three hundred miles farther from the United States, but it is only forty-nine miles in length. The Nicaragua route is one hundred and eighty-four miles in length, more than one hundred of which, however, is through Nicaragua Lake and San Juan River.

In 1902 Congress authorized the purchase of the French interest for \$40,000,000, and appropriated \$130,000,000 to build the canal. A treaty was proposed to Colombia, by which the United States was



THE PANAMA CANAL

to pay that country \$10,000,000 for the right of way of the canal, and an annual rental of \$250,000, beginning nine years later. Colombia wanted more money, however, and rejected the treaty. Whereupon Panama rose in rebellion, threw off the yoke of Colombia, and declared itself free.

The United States promptly recognized the independence of Panama, and proceeded to protect the new republic and



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A WARSHIP PASSING THROUGH THE PANAMA CANAL

make a new treaty with its agents for the right to build a canal. This treaty was made in **December, 1903**. By its terms the United States paid \$10,000,000 to Panama for the concession of a strip of territory ten miles wide across the isthmus, and also guaranteed the independence of Panama.

The canal was completed under the direction of Colonel G. W. Goethals, of the U. S. A. Corps of Engineers, as Engineer-in-Chief. It is entirely under the control of the United States and is of great service to the commerce of the world. The

distance by sea from New York to San Francisco has been reduced from 13,714 miles to 5299 miles. Ships going from Liverpool to San Francisco save 6000 miles. Through the saving in distance there is a great saving in time and expense to ship owners, and the risks of the journey round Cape Horn are largely eliminated.

For many years various nations of the world had sent out expeditions to reach the North Pole. None of these attempts were successful, and many were attended with suffering and disaster. In the winter of 1908 Lieutenant Robert E. Peary, of the United States Navy, started on an expedition for the Pole with every provision against failure.

His party landed in **February, 1909**, on the north coast of Greenland, and started overland on the five hundred mile journey to the Pole. For seven weeks the intrepid explorers broke through ice and snow, many of the men abandoning the undertaking through fatigue and discouragement. Of the sixty-six who started only Peary and five companions reached the North Pole. Here, on **April 6, 1909**, the American flag was planted, and the greatest exploration of modern times was accomplished.

From the original thirteen States our country has grown to forty-eight States. The first census in **1790** showed about four millions of people. In one hundred and ten years, by the census of **1900**, it had reached over seventy-six millions. The United States with its territorial possessions had in **1910** about one hundred and one million people; at the present day the population is not far from one hundred and ten million people. In the United States proper there are about thirty-five persons to every square mile. The center of population was, in **1790**, twenty miles

east of Baltimore; but it has been moving westward steadily until now it is in the city of Bloomington, Indiana.

The area of the United States is a little more than three million square miles, which is nearly as much as all Europe.

Area of the United States We have twenty States each larger than England and Wales. Texas alone is larger than France or Germany, and is four times as large as England and Wales. Leaving out Russia, the United States is three times as



SHIPS CARRY AMERICAN PRODUCTS TO EVERY PART OF THE WORLD

large as all the rest of Europe combined. It has been estimated that a steamboat may pass up the Mississippi and Missouri rivers a distance of nearly four thousand miles, or as far as from New York to Constantinople.

Wealth The wealth of the people of the United States is not far from three hundred billion dollars. If evenly distributed, every inhabitant would have about three thousand dollars. This great wealth has been accumulated by our vast industries and commercial enterprises. It

has been estimated that the United States has more wealth than Great Britain, France, and Italy combined.

With one-fifteenth of the world's population, the United States produces one-fifth of the gold, two-fifths of the iron and steel, one-fourth of the wheat, one-half of the coal, two-thirds of the cotton, two-thirds of the oil, three-fourths of the corn, and nearly nine-tenths of the automobiles of the whole world.

The productions of the United States are so great that each year we could furnish each individual in the world with two suits of cotton cloth, with one and a half bushels of corn, with one-fourth of a ton of coal, with ^{Production} four gallons of oil, with a half bushel of wheat, with one-third of a pound of sugar, and thirty pounds of meat.

It is not surprising then to find American products in every market of the world. Our locomotives are sold in China and Japan, our steel bridges and electric cars are found in Egypt, our knives, tools, sewing machines, typewriters, cash registers, firearms, automobiles, and a hundred other manufactured articles, may be found anywhere in the world.

2. GREAT AMERICAN INVENTIONS AND INDUSTRIES

America is a land of inventors. Eli Whitney gave the world the cotton gin; Fulton perfected the steamboat; Morse devised the electric telegraph; McCormick constructed the reaper; Ericsson built an ironclad war vessel; Howe invented the sewing machine; Edison perfected the electric light and the electric car; Bell invented the telephone.

Other inventions are the sleeping car and the vestibule train, together with the air brake, that make travel comfortable and safe; the revolving printing press, the typewriter, the cash register, the safety bicycle, and the passenger

elevator, that greatly facilitate business; the compressed air drill, the improved loom, the Corliss engine, the refrigerator car, and the gas engine, that have helped to develop our industries.

All inventions are patented in the Patent Office, at Washington, which, beginning in 1791, has, up to this time, issued over a million patents protecting all inventors from



THE PATENT OFFICE, WASHINGTON

those who may try to reap the profits of the genius and labors of others.

Among the greatest of American inventors is Thomas A. Edison. He began life as a newsboy on a passenger train.

Thomas A. Edison His fancy was early attracted to telegraphing.

Upon one occasion he saved the child of a telegraph operator from being run over by a train, and the operator in gratitude offered to teach Edison telegraphing. He gladly accepted the offer, and became a very rapid telegrapher.

He soon became an electrical expert and devised a method by which many messages could be sent on one wire at the same time, thus saving the expense of many wires. He soon after invented the improved "stock ticker," which records in the office of the stock brokers the quotations of the market.

Having accumulated some money, Edison moved to Menlo Park in New Jersey and began experiments and inventions on a large scale. In 1879 he announced that he could furnish light from electricity. In fact, he had eighty lights in the park near his home, but they were not very satisfactory. After much work he succeeded in exhausting the air from the electric globes, and the electric light as we now know it became a success. Cities and towns the world over may now be lighted by electricity.

Edison turned his attention to the electric car. His first experiment was on two miles of track at Menlo Park. In 1884 the first electric car was placed in use; and so rapidly have the



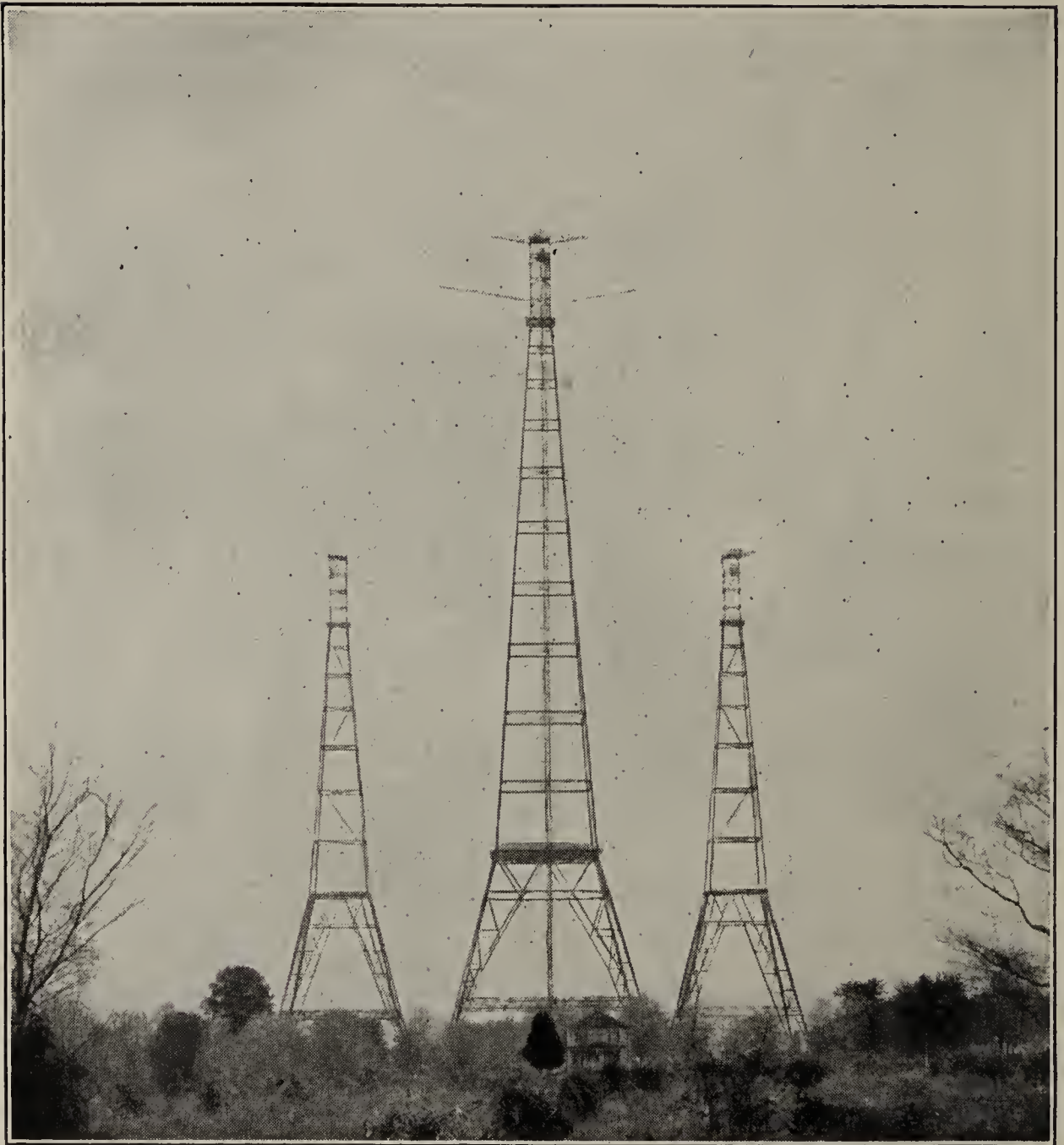
Courtesy of Chicago Telephone Co., Chicago

A MODERN SWITCHBOARD IN A TELEPHONE EXCHANGE

cars grown in favor that few cities are without a system of electric street cars.

Among other inventions of Edison are the phonograph, the kinoscope or moving picture machine, and the mimeograph for making many copies of one writing. So many

and so wonderful have been his inventions that he is called the "Wizard of Menlo Park."



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WIRELESS STATION AT ARLINGTON

Alexander Graham Bell, of Boston, discovered that electricity could be used to carry the sound of the human voice. In 1876 he took out a patent for the telephone and exhibited his invention at the Centennial Exposition in Philadelphia.

Almost at once the telephone was improved by a number of additional patents, and sprang into the world's notice and favor as a business necessity and a domestic convenience. Our homes, our business houses, our cities, are connected by telephone. Millions of these instruments are now in use. It is possible to sit at a desk in New York and talk to friends in Boston, Chicago, San Francisco, or anywhere else in the country.

The telephone

A great improvement upon the telegraph has been devised of late years by Marconi, an Italian, who has invented wireless telegraphy. By his invention messages are sent without wires many hundreds of miles over the seas, thereby enabling ships to communicate with each other and with the shore. Thousands of lives have been saved at sea by wireless messages calling for assistance. Wireless stations of such power are established along the coast and at prominent places in the interior that it is now possible to send messages over the seas. The great station at Arlington can easily communicate with Paris and other European cities.

Wireless telegraphy

The development of the automobile has been one of the great American industries. In 1895 an automobile race in Chicago over a ninety-mile race course, in which only two cars started, was finished by one car in a little less than nine hours, the car stopping ten times for repairs and fuel. The engine had to be cooled by ice to keep it from overheating. Since that time automobiles have developed a speed of a hundred and fifty miles an hour.

Automobile industry

In 1900 there were about 4000 cars made each year. Now there are over a million cars made annually, many of them marvels of beauty, comfort, and speed. The consumption of gasoline is over a billion gallons a year. If this quantity were

placed in cans of five gallons each, and the cans placed side by side, the row would reach twice around the earth.

Henry Ford in 1893 made his first "wagon driven by gas." It was very queer and excited great merriment on the streets of Detroit. Today the great Ford Motor Company turns



Courtesy of Mr. Henry Ford, Detroit

HENRY FORD IN HIS FIRST CAR

out a thousand cars every twenty-four hours, that find ready sale in every market of the world.

One of the greatest inventions of modern times is the flying machine, or airplane. Many experiments have been made from time to time by men of various nations in attempts to make a heavier-than-air machine that would fly. These attempts were crude and dangerous

Airplanes

at best, some machines being unable to fly at all and others going only a few hundred feet in a single flight.

The great development of the airplane is due to two brothers, Orville and Wilbur Wright, of Dayton, Ohio, who after years of experiment began to make successful flights. In 1904 they made a flight of three miles; in 1905 a flight of 24 miles; in 1908 a flight of 95 miles. By this time they were recognized as having solved the question of navigating the air.



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AUTOMOBILES NOW CROWD THE AVENUES OF OUR CITIES

Improvements upon airplanes have been made with astonishing rapidity. Almost every month brings a new record for distance and altitude. The airplane is no longer a novelty, or a toy, but is becoming a considerable factor in our military and commercial life. A speed of 150 miles an hour, and a height of five or six miles, are no uncommon occurrences. Even the Atlantic Ocean has been crossed by American aviators, though a stop was made at the Azores on the way.

In **June, 1919**, two British aviators made the first non-stop flight across the Atlantic Ocean, starting from Newfoundland and landing in Ireland. They flew 1900 miles in sixteen hours and twelve minutes, through fog and mist, sometimes with the plane upside down and only a few feet from the water, and then again soaring more than two miles high.

In **October, 1919**, a transcontinental race between New York and San Francisco was undertaken by sixty-three fliers,



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AN AIRPLANE

forty-eight starting from New York and fifteen starting from San Francisco. The fastest total flying time going west was twenty-five hours and eleven minutes; going east the time was twenty-one hours and fifty-one minutes.

In the World War the airplane showed conclusively its great value for military service. Since then airplane mail service has been instituted, and passenger traffic for business and pleasure has been undertaken in many places.

3. GROWTH OF THE WEST

We have already learned of the great movement westward after the discovery of gold in California. Gold and silver were discovered in other places from time to time, and the great plains beyond the Mississippi were soon dotted with villages that rapidly grew into towns and cities.

Chicago in 1830 was merely a fort in the wilderness. By 1840 it had only five thousand people. Now it has over two million and a half people, and covers two hundred square miles. Kansas City was not known in 1850, but now it has three hundred and seventy-five thousand people. San Francisco¹ in 1840 had only five hundred people, and Milwaukee had only seventeen hundred. Now San Francisco has over five hundred and fifty thousand and Milwaukee about four hundred and fifty thousand inhabitants. In 1858 Denver was a mining camp; now it has nearly three hundred thousand people. Truly, the great West has sprung into wonderful growth and power.

Across the plains once went the "pony express," carrying mail from Missouri to San Francisco. Overland stages for passengers soon began to run on regular schedules, and the comforts of civilization gradually found their way into the wilderness.

At length it was proposed to build a railroad across the country to California. Congress granted fifty million dollars to two companies to build railroads; one, the Union Pacific Railroad, to build from Omaha westward, the other, the Central Pacific, to build from Sacramento eastward. For many years, across the prairies and

¹ The beautiful city of San Francisco was nearly destroyed by earthquake and fire in 1906, but its brave citizens have since carried out the rebuilding of the city upon a larger scale.

over the mountains, the work of building these transcontinental lines continued.

At last, in **May, 1869**, the two lines came together in Ogden, Utah, and the last spike was driven. It was a great event. As the blows fell, the news was telegraphed throughout the Union to let the people know that the Atlantic and Pacific



DRIVING THE LAST SPIKE

oceans — over three thousand miles apart — were connected by rail.

Other great railroad lines have since been built across the continent, making it possible to travel in comfort from one end of our great country to the other in about a week. Once it took as long a time to go from New York to Boston, and then one had to travel in a stagecoach.

**Homestead
Act**

In addition to granting sums of money to these railroad companies, Congress gave them large sections of land along the lines to aid them in building

up the country with settlers. In 1862 the Homestead Act was passed by Congress, which gave every man one hundred and sixty acres of government land provided he would settle on it, build a cabin, and cultivate the soil.

These inducements by the government, and the ease of travel, led thousands of people to move into the West.



WESTERN DESERTS HAVE BECOME FERTILE FIELDS BY MEANS OF IRRIGATION

Regions that were treeless wastes or a vast wilderness of uncultivated land soon were made fertile by irrigation; splendid roads were built along the highways; people came in; settlements that were composed of a few dugouts and sod cabins grew into villages and then into cities.

The Indians have gradually given way to the advance of the white man. At one time they were free to range the plains. Later they were settled in the Indian Territory and

other reservations. They are beginning to take on some degree of civilization, living in houses, sending their children to school, and dwelling peaceably on the lands assigned to them. There are now about two hundred and fifty thousand Indians living on reservations, in the West mainly.

In 1889 a portion of the Indian Territory was bought and called Oklahoma, "Red Man's Land." On the day this territory was opened there was a mighty rush of settlers across the line. All the night before thousands had camped on the borders. When the sign to



THE INDIANS NOW LIVE ON RESERVATIONS UNDER THE PROTECTION OF THE GOVERNMENT

move was given, on they went, by wagon and on horseback, to stake off their claims. Every man held what he staked off. Towns sprang up in a day and grew into cities in a week. Hundreds of thousands of

people found homes in a few months. The race for Oklahoma showed the spirit of those who were peopling the western section of our country.

The industries of the West have grown wonderfully. The settlers on the prairies found the land cheap, the soil fertile and easily plowed. The small farms grew into larger farms, until now one may see thousands

of acres under cultivation. Many wheat fields and corn fields in the West extend unbroken for miles. As far as the eye can see the grain grows in one vast surface that moves like the waves of the ocean. There are single wheat fields fifteen to twenty miles in extent.

At first only horses, mules, and oxen were used for plowing. These have given way on the great farms to the steam plow and the tractor that, driven by one man, **Use of machinery for farming** do the work of many teams. Then came the steam harvester and thresher that went like a giant mowing-machine through the ripened grain, cutting a wide swath, threshing, measuring, and sacking it ready for the



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CULTIVATING WITH A TRACTOR

market. On the great farms several of these machines will start abreast, keep in a straight course all day, and make a return journey the next day.

These vast crops of wheat and corn have called for great mills for making flour and meal. In the large Western cities are immense elevators used for loading cars and ships with grain to be transported to all parts of the world. The West deserves to be called the granary of the world.

Over the broad plains of the West, buffaloes once roamed

in great herds, but they have been hunted and slain for their hides and meat until now only a few survive. These are kept guarded in the National Park, under the protection of the government; otherwise the historic buffalo of the West would soon be entirely extinct. To occupy the ranges of this old king of the plains have come the vast cattle ranches, embracing great areas of rich



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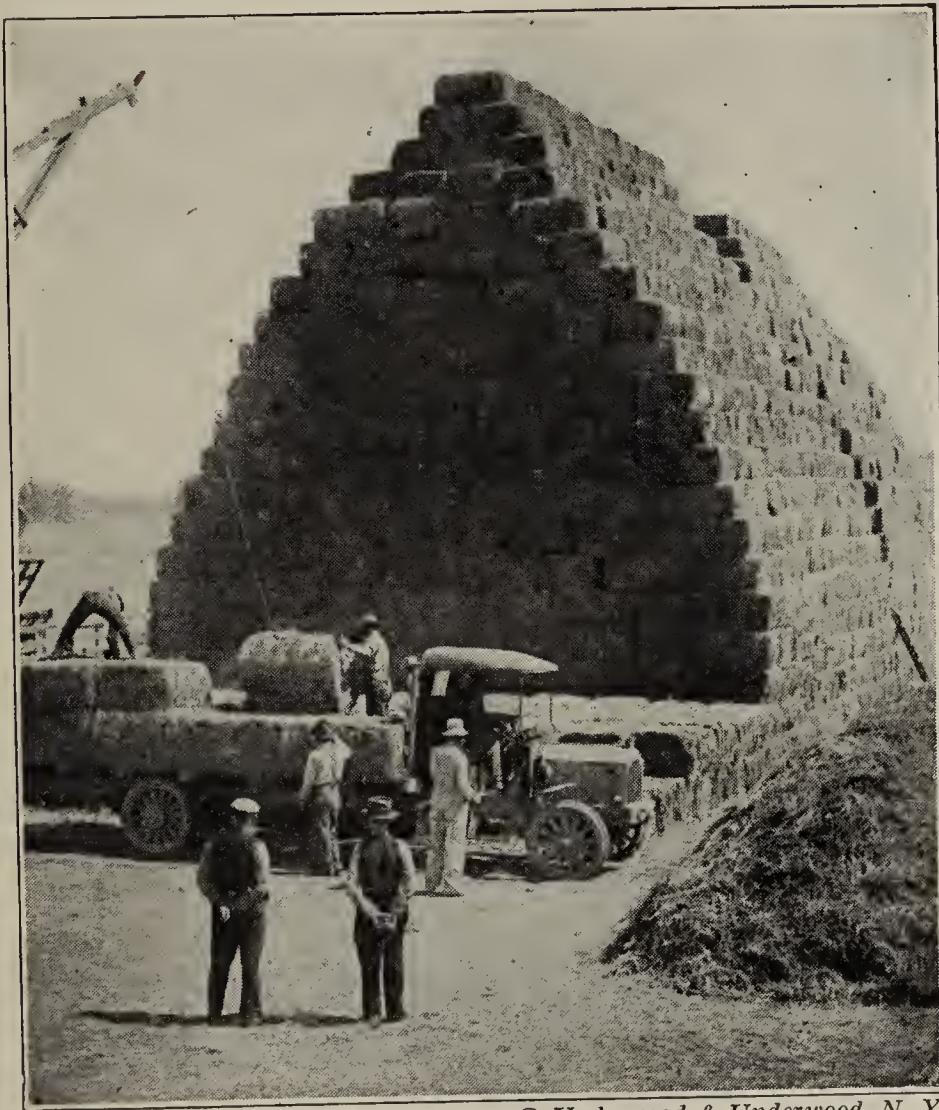
GRAIN ELEVATORS IN OUR LARGE WESTERN CITIES LOAD VESSELS WITH CORN AND WHEAT FOR ALL PARTS OF THE WORLD

grass over which wander herds of horned cattle, sheep, and hogs.

Hundreds of thousands of cattle fatten on the prairie grass, tended by cowboys on their swift ponies. The cattle

are marked by branding to indicate their owners. At the proper time they are herded for the market, gathered in cattle trains, and hurried to the great stockyards of Chicago, Denver, St. Louis, and other Western cities. Every day thousands of cattle are landed in each of these cities.

Packing houses prepare the meat for market. It is inspected by government officials, stored in refrigerator cars or in ships, and transported to all parts of the country and to nearly every part of the globe. ^{Western meat}
In fact the armies of Europe are fed with the corn and meat



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BALING HAY ON A WESTERN FARM

of the West, and foreign nations depend upon us for much of their food supply.

Railroads and telegraphs have changed the West from a wild country full of savages to a great region of prosperous and happy people. The trade with China in teas, spices,

and silks, that once went around Cape Horn, now enters at California and goes overland to the East or passes through the Panama Canal by an all-water route. Instead of six months on the ocean, the China trade is in New York in six weeks.

Thus we see that the great West, once laughed at by statesmen at Washington as being so far from the capital that a congressman could not arrive for his duties in six months, has now become one of the most important sections of the world. Its gold and silver mines, its fields of wheat and corn, its ranches of cattle, its great forests of timber, its gardens of vegetables, and its orchards of fruits have made it a region to which the world looks for food and shelter.

One hundred years had passed since the great area once named Louisiana had been purchased by Jefferson from Napoleon. To celebrate the anniversary an exposition was held in St. Louis, which is the largest city in the original tract. The gates were opened in April, 1904. The progress of the West was fully shown in the great exhibits of its many enterprises and industries. It was the greatest fair our country has ever had, not excepting the World's Fair in Chicago.

4. GROWTH OF THE SOUTH

The South is rapidly recovering from the ravages of war. The eleven States that in 1860 had nine million inhabitants, by 1910 had over twenty-two million. Of these, fifteen million were white people, and seven million were negroes. There are about two million more negroes in the United States, scattered through every State in the Union.

The Southern people have learned that free labor is better than slave labor. The old way of farming has been succeeded

by a better way. The farms are not so large, but they are more numerous and more productive, because they are tilled with more intelligence and less waste. The cotton crop is still the most important industry. In 1913 it was over three times as large as it was in 1860. The South produces twelve to fourteen million bales a year, which is about three-fourths of all the cotton grown in the world. Of this amount nine million bales are annually exported to foreign countries.

The South has learned that there are other treasures in its soil besides cotton. Millions of peach trees are being planted every year, bearing the finest of fruit, which is hurried in refrigerator cars to Northern markets. In addition to this, great quantities of oranges, pineapples, strawberries, melons, and vegetables are raised. The Southern farmer has learned the value of diversified crops, so that he no longer depends solely on cotton. In fact the fruit and vegetable crop of the South is rapidly rivaling the cotton crop in value.



PICKING COTTON ON A SOUTHERN FARM

For many years nearly all the manufacturing was done in the North; of late years, however, there has been a great increase in the number of mills, especially cotton mills, in the South. On almost every stream, and in nearly every town of any size, may be found a cotton mill. In 1880 there were not more than two hundred cotton mills in the South. Now there are over eight hundred, and every year adds to their number.

Millions of dollars are annually invested by Northern and foreign capitalists in Southern manufacturing. The nearness of the cotton fields, the vast beds of coal for fuel, the almost inexhaustible water power, the open climate, the abundant and cheap labor, have induced the mills to come to the cotton, instead of requiring the cotton to go to the mills. If the world can depend on the West for its bread and meat, it can also depend on the South for its clothing.

The Southern coal fields have become very valuable. Vast deposits lie in Alabama, Tennessee, and neighboring States. These deposits contain many times more coal than the fields of Great Britain. The fields of Alabama alone will supply the world for one hundred and fifty years. It is estimated that they are worth more than all the other property of that State combined. Only three States in the Union exceed Alabama in the mining of coal. The output of the Southern coal mines is ten times greater than it was thirty years ago, and is increasing every year.

Crude oil has been found in quantities in the States of Texas and Louisiana. These two States alone produced in one year thirty-seven million barrels. Texas stands fourth in the list of States in the production of crude oil. In addition to oil, this State has natural gas wells that supply millions of cubic feet a day.

The iron industry of the South is also rapidly increasing. In Alabama are great iron mines, and near them great foundries, in which as much pig iron is produced today as was produced by the entire country **Iron industry** twenty years ago. Birmingham has become a coal and iron center, and the foundries rival those of Pennsylvania in size and production.

In addition to this there are fifty million acres of hardwood forests and one hundred and fifty million acres in pine forests in the South; this being about one-third of the forest area of the entire country. **Forest area** These forests have called for sawmills, lumber mills, and other attendant industries.

New Orleans, the largest city in the South, has a population of nearly four hundred thousand. It is the largest cotton port in America. For many years the foreign commerce of the city suffered from lack of deep water at the mouth of the Mississippi. **New Orleans and the Eads jetties** That great stream brought down vast quantities of mud and sand that filled up the mouth of the river, making it difficult and often impossible for ships to pass. It was no uncommon occurrence for ships to wait for weeks to pass the bar, and then pay heavy charges for tugs to pull them across.

Captain James B. Eads, an engineer of St. Louis, who had acquired fame by building the great steel bridge that spans the Mississippi at that place, proposed to Congress to open one of the mouths of the Mississippi and to keep it open. Congress reluctantly consented, and Eads set to work. In four years he built two piers, or jetties, two miles long and only four hundred yards apart, running far out into the gulf. The jetties were completed in 1879.

This narrowed the stream and made the current swifter,

so that the mud instead of being deposited in the bed of the river is carried out to sea. The river thus clears out its own mouth, and ships come up the river to New Orleans without hindrance.

In 1884 the great Cotton Centennial Exposition was held in New Orleans. Its purpose was to celebrate the one-hundredth anniversary of the shipping of eight Cotton Centennial bags of cotton from Charleston to England. Thousands of visitors came to the picturesque city to view the great display of products and industries of the awakened South. The buildings covered seventy-five acres. The main building was the largest which up to that time had ever been built for exhibition purposes.

Other expositions have been held in Atlanta, Charleston, and Nashville. A notable one was held at Norfolk, Va., in 1907, known as the Jamestown Exposition, to celebrate the three-hundredth anniversary of the first permanent settlement in America. The splendid displays in agriculture, manufactures, and in the arts and sciences showed how rapidly the South has recovered from the devastation of war, and how quickly it is regaining its position of wealth and influence in the nation.

Considering the distress of the South by the losses of war and the depression of business, the progress in education has been remarkable. In 1870 the entire negro population in the South was comparatively illiterate. At the present time over two million negro children are annually enrolled in school. In the year 1910 the census showed that nearly three-fourths of the negroes of the South could read and write. In 1882 John F. Slater, of Connecticut, gave \$1,000,000 to be used for the education of Southern negroes. The number of illiterate negroes is being rapidly reduced as

schools increase in number and efficiency. At the present time there are few illiterates among the negroes of school age, and every year the number of adult illiterates grows less.

In 1882 Paul Tulane, who for many years had been a resident of New Orleans, gave \$1,000,000 to found a university in that city. During the same year George Peabody, the London banker, gave several million dollars for the cause of education in the South. Vanderbilt University at Nashville, Tennessee, was also founded and given a liberal endowment.

Public schools have been organized in every State, free to both white and negro children, though the two races are always taught in separate schools. With education and increased wealth there have come greater industry, more economy, higher self-respect, and a nobler pleasure in correct living.

5. AMERICAN LITERATURE AND ART

Washington Irving, of New York, is called "the Father of American Literature." In 1807 appeared "Knickerbocker's History of New York." It is a humorous account of the old Dutch settlers and of life in New Amsterdam. Shortly afterwards appeared "The Sketch Book," containing "Rip Van Winkle," and "The Legend of Sleepy Hollow."

William Cullen Bryant is among our first and greatest poets. He wrote "Thanatopsis" when he was nineteen years old. His "To a Waterfowl" is among the noblest poems in the language.

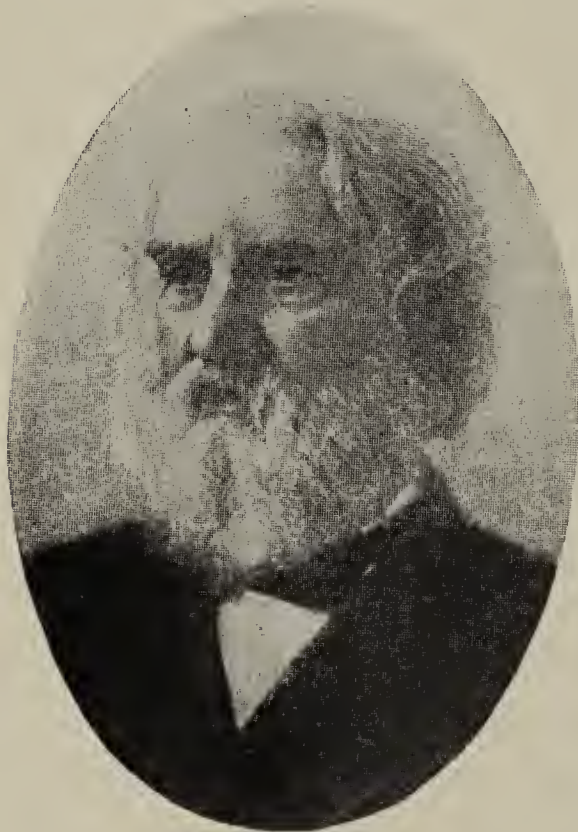
Henry W. Longfellow was born in Maine, but spent most of his life in Cambridge, Massachusetts. Among his best short poems is "The Psalm of Life." One of the longer poems is "Hiawatha," a graphic story of Indian life. The

poem "Evangeline" is based upon the adventures of the Acadians.

John Greenleaf Whittier is known as the "Quaker Poet." He was a poor boy, born on a farm in Massachusetts. He became deeply interested in the movement to free the slaves,

and wrote many stirring war poems. "Snow Bound" is considered one of the best descriptive poems in the language.

Oliver Wendell Holmes, who was born in Cambridge, Massachusetts, was a doctor as well as a poet and author. Among his humorous poems we may mention "The Wonderful One-Hoss Shay," and "How the Old Horse Won the Bet." "The Last Leaf," and "The Chambered Nautilus," are splendid poems in a serious vein.



HENRY W. LONGFELLOW

Edgar Allan Poe is among the greatest of imaginative writers. His short stories are among the finest in the language. "The Black Cat," "The Gold Bug," "The Murders in the Rue Morgue," and others, have been translated into several foreign languages and widely used as models of story writing. His poems, "The Raven," "The Bells," and "Annabel Lee," are well known in every household.

Ralph Waldo Emerson and **James Russell Lowell** were critics of ability, as well as authors of high standing.

Another famous poet is **Joaquin Miller**, whose poem

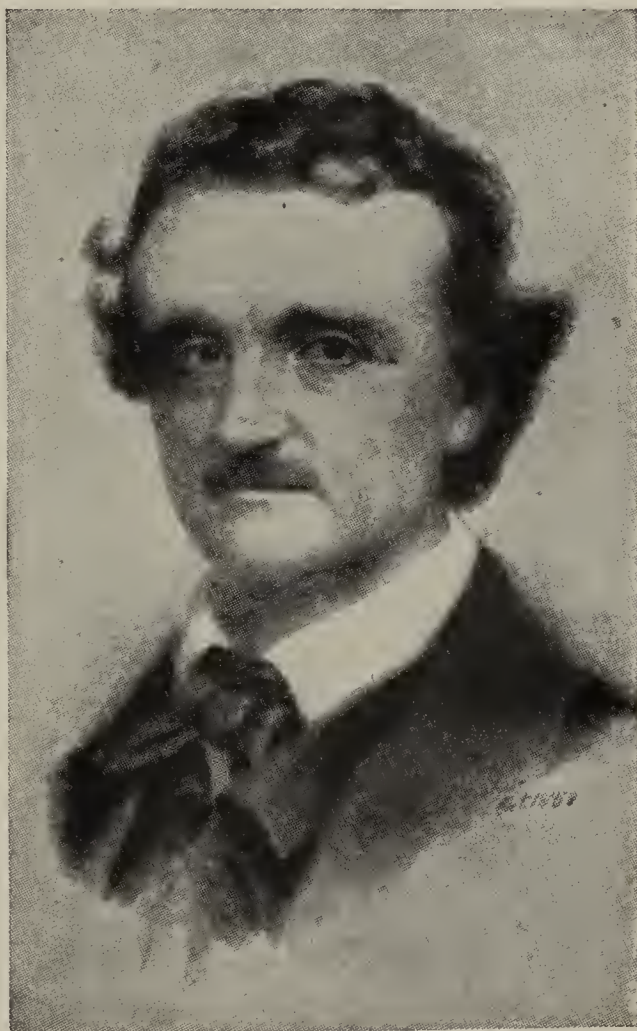
“Columbus” is among the most stirring of all our patriotic poems. **Walt Whitman**, **Eugene Field**, and **James Whitcomb Riley** deserve a place in every library.

Henry Timrod and **Paul Hamilton Hayne** have written strong and beautiful poems of the South. **Father Ryan**, who wrote “The Conquered Banner,” and **James R. Randall**, who wrote “Maryland! My Maryland!” have produced pure and thrilling war lyrics.

The most notable poet of recent years is **Sidney Lanier**, of Georgia. Two of his poems are, “The Marshes of Glynn,” and “The Song of the Chattahoochee.” These contain some of the finest lines in our literature. Many critics, especially in England, have placed him beside the greatest of our literary artists.

James Fenimore Cooper is the first of our great novelists. Spending much of his life on the frontier of New York in the pioneer days, he learned the story of Indian life and tradi-

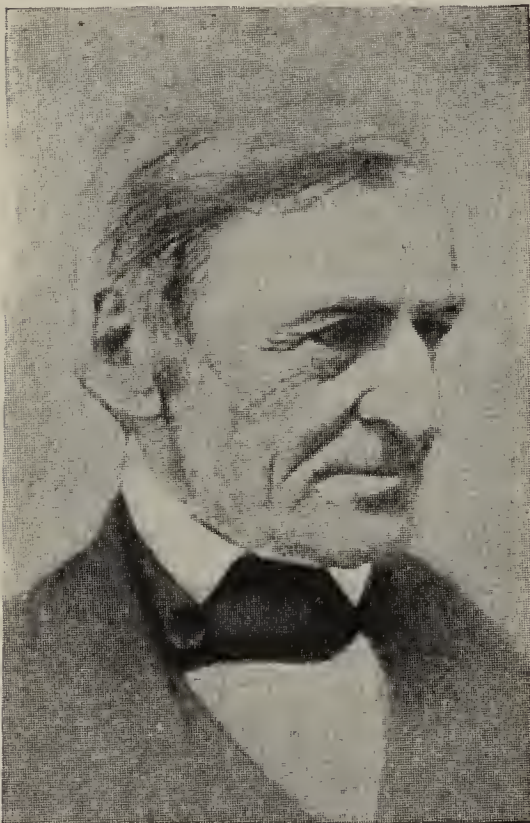
tions. His famous stories of “The Last of the Mohicans,” “The Deerslayer,” “The Pathfinder,” “The Prairie,” are splendid Indian stories. To him more than to any one else is due the rescue of Indian life from oblivion. Cooper had spent several years of his youth as a sailor, and therefore



EDGAR ALLAN POE

could write notable sea stories. Among these are, "The Pilot," "The Red Rover," "The Two Admirals." There are no better books for boys in our literature than these stories of the early days.

Nathaniel Hawthorne, of Massachusetts, is one of the finest masters of American prose. For many years he wrote without



RALPH WALDO EMERSON

publication, in order to perfect his style. He spent several years abroad in study and observation. His most notable stories are, "The Scarlet Letter," "Twice-Told Tales," "The Marble Faun," and "Mosses from an Old Manse."

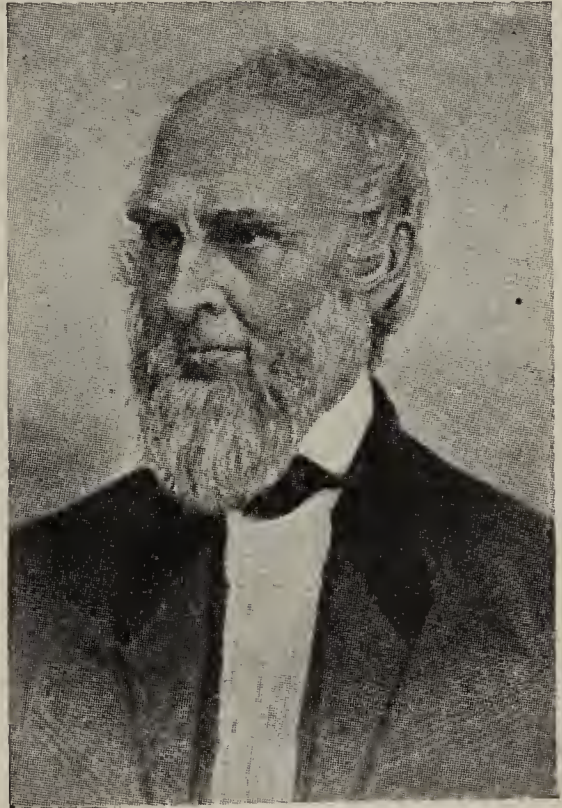
Among later writers may first be mentioned **Samuel L. Clemens**, better known as Mark Twain. "Roughing It" is a laughable story of a prospector's life in the West. "Innocents Abroad" is the most characteristic of all his books, and the one on which his fame mainly rests. It is a humorous account of his travels in Europe. Mark Twain is easily our greatest humorist.

Bret Harte has written splendid stories of early life in the West. Two of the best are, "The Luck of Roaring Camp," and "How Santa Claus came to Simpson's Bar." **Edward Eggleston** wrote stories of pioneer days in Indiana. "The Hoosier Schoolmaster," and "The Circuit Rider," are perhaps his best. **William Gilmore Sims** of South Carolina has written splendid stories based on the traditions of the early

times in the South. "The Yemassee" is one of the most noted.

Thomas Nelson Page has written stories of Virginia and the war. Some of his short stories in dialect are among the strongest and best in our literature. **Joel Chandler Harris** has made "Uncle Remus" immortal, and has forever embalmed the folklore of the slave quarters in the hearts of his readers. There are many other writers of stories in our language that show the awakening of a true literary spirit among our people.

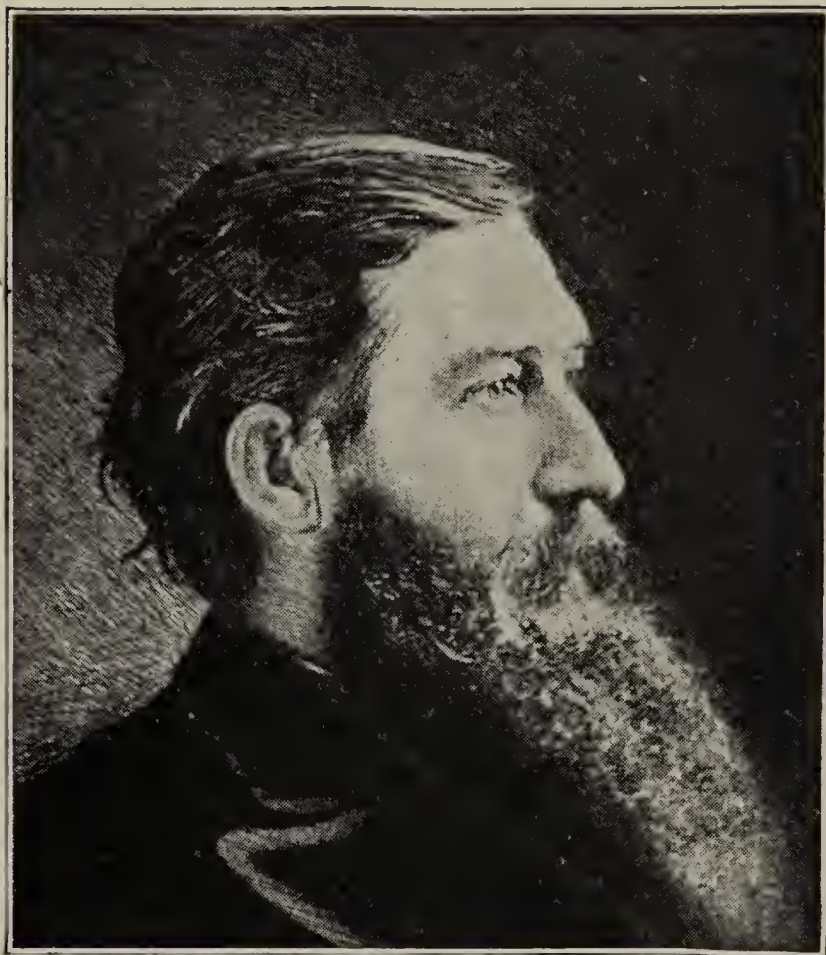
In no branch of literature has more talent been shown than in the writing of history. **William H. Prescott** has told the romantic story of "Ferdinand and Isabella," "The Conquest of Peru," and "The Conquest of Mexico." **John Lothrop Motley** wrote the story of the Dutch Republic. **Francis Parkman** has written many books relating the adventures of the French in America. **George Bancroft** has written the "History of the United States." All these authors possessed a glowing style that has made history as thrilling as any romance ever written.



JOHN G. WHITTIER

In the department of art we point with pride to **Benjamin West**, a poor Quaker boy in Pennsylvania, who showed early a talent for drawing, and who afterwards painted the wonderful picture, "Christ Healing the Sick." **Copley** painted portraits of Revolutionary heroes.

Among sculptors **Hiram Powers** has gained a world-wide reputation for the beautiful figure of "The Greek Slave,"



SIDNEY LANIER

now in the Corcoran Art Gallery at Washington. Other renowned American sculptors are **Saint Gaudens**, and **MacMonnies**, whose genius in design has won recognition the world over.

We have shown our admiration for literature by the great libraries in New York, Boston, and elsewhere. The Library of

Congress is one of the finest collections of books in the world, and the building is one of the most costly and beautiful. In nearly all our large cities are wonderful art galleries, where thousands of people view masterpieces of art in marble or on canvas.

TOPICS

Great American Enterprises. Starting the Atlantic cable; early efforts and failures. The *Great Eastern* and establishing communication; cables of the present day. Suspension bridges. Oil wells; present-day product. Tall buildings; other enterprises. Panama Canal; early history; the French company; the two routes. Treaty with

Colombia and revolt of Panama. Treaty with Panama. The Canal completed; its advantages. Peary reaches the North Pole. Growth of the United States; area; wealth; products.

Great American Inventions and Industries. Some inventors and their inventions; other inventions. The Patent Office. Thomas A. Edison; early life and experiments. The electric light; the electric car; other inventions of Edison. The telephone. Wireless telegraphy. The automobile; early history; present-day manufacture; consumption of gasoline. Henry Ford's first car; present-day production. The flying machine; early history. Orville and Wilbur Wright; early flights. Improvements; speed; altitude; crossing the ocean. The transcontinental race.

Growth of the West. Growth of Chicago; Kansas City; San Francisco; Milwaukee; Denver. The Pony Express. Building the Pacific railways; driving the last spike. The Homestead Act; moving West. The Indians. The rush to Oklahoma. Western farms; use of machinery. Western mills. Passing of the buffalo; cattle ranges and ranches. Western meat. The China trade. The Louisiana Purchase Exposition.

Growth of the South. Recovery of the South; population. Farming in the South; the cotton crop. Education in the South; universities; progress of the negroes; public school systems. The fruit crop. Increase of cotton mills. The coal fields. Crude oil. The iron industry. The forest area. New Orleans; the Eads jetties. Cotton Centennial Exposition; its purpose and size. Other expositions; the Jamestown Exposition.

American Literature and Art. Irving; Bryant; Longfellow; Whittier; Holmes; Poe; Emerson; Lowell; Miller; Whitman; Field; Riley; Timrod; Hayne; Ryan; Randall; Lanier; Cooper; Hawthorne; Clemens; Bret Harte; Eggleston; Sims; Page; Harris; Prescott; Motley; Parkman; Bancroft; West; Copley; Powers; Saint Gaudens; MacMonnies.

SUBJECTS FOR STUDY

How do you account for the American spirit for great enterprises? Which American invention do you consider the most valuable? What industry do you consider the most remarkable? What conditions

make the West so wonderful a region? Why is it to the interest of the South to raise other crops besides cotton? What books by American authors have you read?

COMPOSITION

Select one great American enterprise or invention and describe the good it has done to the world.

Describe the life of a cowboy on a great ranch in the West.

Write a description of life on a Southern farm.

MAP STUDIES

Locate the route of the Panama Canal. Locate some of the great cities of the West.

CHAPTER XIV

THE WORLD WAR

1. EUROPE BEFORE THE WORLD WAR

Let us consider the situation in Europe preceding that great conflict known as the World War.

In 1870 the German Confederation, of which Prussia was the most powerful state, under the leadership of Bismarck with his policy of "blood and iron," engaged in a war with France. This war was known as the Franco-Prussian War. It lasted but a short while, and France, defeated, was compelled to submit to the terms imposed by Germany.

France had to pay to Germany an indemnity of nearly one billion dollars. The money was deposited in German banks, and was used in expanding the commerce and manufactures of Germany. France was compelled to cede to Germany the province of Alsace, and the northern part of the province of Lorraine, territory rich in iron and coal. "This wrong done to France," said President Wilson, "unsettled the peace of Europe for fifty years."

Franco-
Prussian War
and demands
on France

The German Confederation, which was composed of a number of German states and principalities, was changed into the German Empire, with the king of Prussia as German Emperor or "Kaiser." Germany as a united country started out on its career of prosperity and power. Her population increased from forty-one million in 1870 to about seventy million at the opening

Progress of
the German
Empire

of the World War. Her production of coal and iron was increased tenfold, while in wealth, commerce, and manufactures she was second in Europe to England only. Germany had grown rapidly into a great and powerful nation, rich and prosperous, with her agents in every country, her ships on every



EUROPE IN 1913

sea, and the products of her factories for sale in every city of the world.

Unfortunately, this great and growing nation showed no liberality in its government. Political power in Prussia was largely in the hands of capitalists and land-owners, especially the Junkers, or the Prussian nobles. A military system was developed, designed to keep the people blindly devoted to the Kaiser, no matter what he said or did. There were frequent

references in reports and speeches of the German leaders to a necessity for conquests, and to a belief in the righteousness of war.

Through many years Germany built up a military system that made that nation practically an armed camp. Every man capable of bearing arms was a trained soldier, and they numbered millions. Vast quantities of supplies, guns, and ammunition were stored, warships were built and launched, and fortifications were placed on all frontiers. In addition to this Germany had her agents or spies in all countries, keeping her informed of the size and strength of armaments, and the political and commercial plans and purposes of all peoples.

The mili-
tary system
of Germany

It appeared that Germany was getting ready for war. Her statesmen and writers considered war strictly from a business basis. If war could be made profitable to Germany then war was a proper enterprise. By a successful war, large indemnities could be demanded, which would not only pay for the war, but would also create a fund to be used in the industrial expansion of the nation. Also, taxes could be laid upon the conquered people, offices would be created for Germans to fill, new concessions could be required and markets opened for German trade only. No matter what war cost in blood and misery Germany saw only the vision of national glory.

Germany wanted more territory. She wanted the iron and coal mines that France still held along the borders; she wanted the rich iron ore deposits and the coal fields of Belgium; she wanted more seaports to the west and south and along the Baltic Sea. Then she wanted more colonies in different parts of the world to provide her with food supplies and raw materials, and open up new markets

More terri-
tory

for her manufactures. She wanted coaling stations in all seas to supply and protect her ships both in times of peace and war.

Germany wanted more trade. England was the mistress of the seas, and proposed to remain so. England was the great carrier of the world's products, and her commercial supremacy was a bitter fact for Germany. **More trade** England stood in Germany's way and was between her and the world's commercial conquest. A favorite toast of the officers of the German navy was to "der Tag," which meant "the day" when the pride of England would be humbled, and Germany would have "a place in the sun."

Already Germany had secured a strong influence over Turkey, and by 1914 had more than half completed a rail- **Berlin-to-Bag-** road through Turkey to the Persian Gulf, which **dad Railway** she hoped some day to see finished as the Berlin-to-Bagdad Railway, completely controlling the Eastern trade. This was the beginning of the plans of Germany to secure dominant power over "Mittel Europa," or Middle Europe.

Germany wanted world power. Her writers and rulers had proclaimed that German "Kultur," by which is meant **World** the combined effect of the literature, religion, **power** manners, customs, government, and thought of Germany was the best in all the world, and that the world should accept it. She desired to Germanize the world so that her flag should float unchallenged in all ports, her products be preferred in all markets, and her opinions regarded in all courts.

The other nations of Europe regarded the increasing military preparation of Germany with much distrust. They were compelled to sustain armies and navies in ever growing proportion and expense, until for many years there was a heavy

burden of taxation, a feverish haste of armament, and a spirit of oppressive militarism that boded ill for the world. The European nations raised and equipped armies, gathered supplies, manufactured guns and ammunition, and waited for the explosion of war which they feared would come at any moment. The military situation in Europe became a menace to the peace and goodwill of the world.

The nations in Europe made alliances according to their interests. Germany made an alliance with Austria-Hungary and with Italy in 1882, which was called the Triple Alliance. This alliance was a defensive alliance, however, and pledged its members to defend any one of the three against an outside invasion or attack. To combat this combination Great Britain, France, and Russia completed an agreement in 1907, known as the Triple Entente. Thus we see the six great powers of Europe lined up, and it was reasonably certain that any war would involve nearly the entire continent.

In order to meet this unnatural situation and to prevent war, the Czar of Russia, Nicholas II, sent an invitation to all nations to send representatives to a conference to discuss the prevention of war. Twenty-six nations responded, twenty of them European. The conference was held at The Hague, the beautiful capital of Holland, in May, 1899. It was proposed at this conference to limit the armaments of all nations, but the measure was defeated. Germany voted against every proposal that sought to reduce the size of the armies and navies of Europe.

The only result of the conference was an agreement to establish an international tribunal of peace, or a court of arbitration, to which all nations might bring their disputes for settlement.

A second Hague Conference was held in **June, 1907**. Forty-seven nations were represented. This conference confined itself to drawing up and agreeing to a code of international laws known as the Hague Conventions. These agreements contain rules about submarine mines, treatment of prisoners, bombardment of towns, use of poison, and of weapons that may cause unnecessary suffering, the rights of neutrals, etc. We are soon to see that all these efforts at peace, and these agreements for humane practices, amounted to nothing in the great war to follow.

2. HOW THE WORLD WAR BEGAN

The world at large has laid upon Germany the charge of preparing for and precipitating the World War. The charges against that nation are :

1. Forty years of preparation in creating tremendous armaments and collecting vast supplies.
2. Justification and glorification of war on the part of her statesmen, writers, orators, and teachers.
3. Formation of the Triple Alliance, as a league of defense in case of attack by an outside nation.
4. Hostility to any purpose of the Hague Conference to limit armaments and to prevent war.
5. The expressed determination of Germany to gain more territory, dominate Middle Europe, and control the commerce of the world.

Thus the stage was set. All that was needed was an excuse for bringing on a general war that would involve all Europe.

The excuse was found in the ill-feeling that existed between the Serbs, as well as other Slavic races living in the southern provinces of Austria, and the Austrian government itself. The Serbs, particularly those living in the provinces of Bosnia

and Herzegovina, which had been annexed to Austria, desired to be united to the Serbian government, while on the other hand, Austria desired to crush out this opposition and overrun Serbia itself. Feeling therefore was very intense between Austria and the Slavic population in her southern territory.

June 28, 1914, the Archduke Francis Ferdinand, heir to the throne of Austria, was on a visit to Sarajevo, the capital of Bosnia, an Austrian province, to take part in a public ceremony. While he and his wife were driving through the city, a young Bosnian ran up to the automobile containing the royal pair and shot them both dead. It is quite certain that the assassin was a member of a secret society the purpose of which was to separate the Serb provinces from Austria and to annex them to Serbia. His deed was a mad act, and its perpetration caused horror and consternation throughout Europe.

Nearly a month later, **July 23**, the Austrian government sent to Serbia an ultimatum that practically accused that government of being responsible for the murder, and making of her the most humiliating demands. The ultimatum expired in forty-eight hours. Serbia was helpless, and conceded every point except those that compromised her sovereignty. She offered to refer those parts to the arbitration of the Hague Tribunal.

Austria was not satisfied, and **July 28**, declared war on Serbia. In the meanwhile all efforts to keep the peace of Europe were unavailing. Notes were exchanged between the different governments, and proposals made for a compromise, but nothing was accomplished. It was charged that Germany was urging Austria to her course and opposing any plans to prevent war.

Discontent
of the Serbs

Assassination
of the Arch-
duke Francis
Ferdinand

Ultimatum
to Serbia

Austria began a general mobilization of troops. Russia, who was allied in sympathy and interest with Serbia, replied by mobilizing troops on the Austrian frontier. Germany now entered the field and sent an ultimatum to Russia, giving that government twelve hours to stop all war preparations. At the same time Germany sent an ultimatum to France, demanding to know if she would remain neutral in case of war. The French Prime Minister replied that "France would do that which her interest dictated." Russia declined to stop her preparations. Consequently, **August 1**, Germany declared war on Russia, and **August 3**, declared war on France.

Declarations
of war on
Russia and
France

It was the plan of Germany to bring a quick issue of battle before her enemies could get ready. Her first movement was against France, which country she hoped to subdue in a few weeks and then turn on Russia. To do this, speed was necessary and speed demanded an easy access to French territory.

The frontier of France on the German side was heavily defended by strong forts, and the country was mountainous, affording easy defense against invasion. To move across France in this direction would take time and be costly in men and money. Germany decided to move across Luxemburg and Belgium and into France over the level plains of the northern frontier, which were not heavily fortified. Germany's demand to King Albert, of Belgium, for a right of way over his country was indignantly denied by that ruler, who replied that "Belgium is not a thoroughfare, but a nation."

Invasion of
Luxemburg
and Belgium

To march over these countries was openly and defiantly to break the terms of solemn treaties in which Prussia, now the leading power of the German Empire, along with Great Britain,

France, Russia, and Austria, had guaranteed the territory of Luxemburg and Belgium from invasion. They were internationalized and declared neutral countries. Violating the treaties of neutrality Germany had signed this treaty and was now breaking her word as a nation. It mattered little to Germany, however, that she was breaking a signed treaty and invading neutral territory. She declared it was "a military necessity" and any treaty to the contrary was "a scrap of paper."

Luxemburg was soon overrun, for that little country was helpless. **August 3, 1914**, the German army entered Belgium. In a few days the fortress at Liège was reduced after a terrific shell fire, and in three weeks more, Belgium was almost entirely in the hands of the German army. Thus did Germany commit the greatest crime of modern times, to the indignation and astonishment of the entire world.¹

As soon as the German army entered Luxemburg and was on its way to Belgium, Great Britain demanded of Germany that she withdraw her troops and change her plan of invasion. Great Britain declares war Germany refused, and **August 4**, Great Britain declared war on the ground that she was bound to protect the neutrality of Belgium. Thus in one week Russia, Great Britain, and France, commonly called the Allies, were at war with Germany and Austria, commonly called the Central Powers. Italy still held aloof, not bound to enter the war, because the Triple Alliance was a defensive

¹ The invasion of Luxemburg was in violation of the Treaty of London (1867), as well as of her rights as a neutral state in general. The invasion of Belgium was a violation of the Treaty of London (1839) by which Belgium became "an independent and perpetually neutral state." Prussia, Great Britain, Austria, and Russia became the guarantors of her neutrality. This neutrality was confirmed by other treaties in 1870 between Great Britain and Prussia, and Great Britain and France.

league only. Japan, the ally of England, entered the war **August 23**.

The German army met opposition across Belgium by the brave Belgian army. For ten days the advancing hosts were held in check while the French armies were mobilizing to meet them, and the British forces were being hurried across the Channel. These were terrible days of disaster for the Belgian territory, but they served the great purpose of delaying the advance of the German army.

The German army finally advanced into France across the territory of Belgium. The French and English troops could not stop them. For twelve days there was a terrific struggle as the great wave of the invaders moved on. At length the German line was within twenty miles of Paris, and that capital seemed doomed.

In the meantime the French commander, General Joffre, had collected his army and prepared a stand on the Marne River. At the critical moment he ordered his troops to "face death and not surrender." The first battle of the Marne began **September 6, 1914**, and at the end of five days the Germans were not only checked in their advance, but thrown back a distance of fifty miles. Paris was saved, and the plans for a world victory in one short campaign had failed.

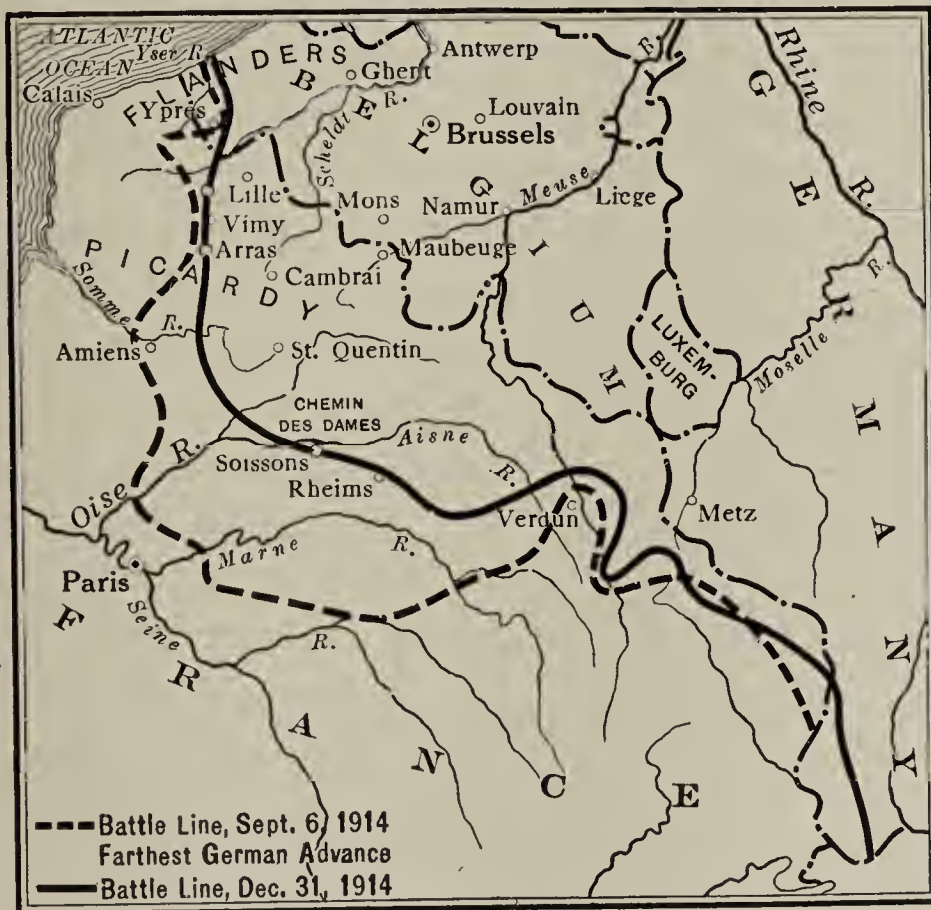
3. THE PROGRESS OF THE WAR

After the great battle of the Marne, the Germans retired to the Aisne River, where they dug trenches and threw up fortifications, from which the British and French were not able to dislodge them. In the early fall of **1914** fighting was continuous for nearly a month in Flanders, in which the Germans lost 150,000 men. The Belgians cut the dikes of the river Yser, flooding the country along the coast and

stopping the advance of the Germans. Both armies now dug trenches and established lines that practically remained unchanged until near the end of the war.

While all this was going on in France, huge Russian armies were gathering for an invasion of Germany and Austria. The plan of attack was to drive the Germans out of East Prussia on the Baltic Sea, and the Austrians out of Galicia on the south, and then make a central drive through Poland to Berlin. About the

Russians
defeated in
East Prussia



THE WESTERN FRONT IN 1914

time the Germans entered Belgium, the Russians entered East Prussia. But the Germans rushed reinforcements to that country under General von Hindenburg and administered a crushing defeat to the Russians at Tannenberg. The Russians then retired from German territory.

The Russians were more successful in Galicia, for by the end of 1914 nearly all of that province was in Russian hands.

Turkey enters the war On the other hand, German troops had crossed the border of Poland and were threatening Warsaw, the most important city. At the same time Turkey, who was already secretly allied to Germany, entered the war by bombarding Russian forts on the Black Sea, and attacking French and Russian vessels. This brought on a declaration of war against Turkey by Russia, Great Britain, and France (November 3-5).

Blockading the German ports With a deadlock on the western front, let us see what was happening outside the immediate area of war. The British navy had been assembled and assigned the task of destroying or blockading the Ger-

man fleet so that it could not interfere with any operations at sea. Before war began the German fleet, at least a greater part of it, had been recalled from its various stations and was securely hidden in German ports behind strong forts, and in inside waters strewn with mines. The English fleet was now on guard outside, ready and anxious for the Germans to



THE EASTERN FRONT IN 1914

come out and give battle. This the Germans refused to do, fearing the result.

In the meantime a few German commerce raiders were loose on the seas, doing much damage to merchant ships. These were hunted down and destroyed by British vessels so that in a short time Germany had no ships of any sort afloat on the high seas. Her merchant vessels left abroad were seized if in an enemy's port, or were interned during the war if in a neutral port.

The colonial possessions held by Germany were soon lost to her. All of her Pacific island coaling stations and her interests in China were captured by the Allies early in the war. Her colonies in Africa later on passed into the hands of the Allies. By the loss of her shipping and the blockade of her ports Germany was completely isolated from the rest of the world, and had to depend upon herself and her immediate neutral neighbors for supplies.

In Belgium the Germans soon had possession of nearly the entire country, including Antwerp. In France, Germany held the richest manufacturing districts, including four-fifths of the iron and steel industries, and one-half the coal. She now began a systematic destruction of the conquered territory.

**Devastation
of Belgium
and northern
France**

Louvain, a city of 45,000 people, was pillaged. The cathedral and about one-third of the city were destroyed and many of the able-bodied among the population were carried off into Germany.

Contrary to the rules of warfare Germany began to plunder the occupied territory, and to terrorize the inhabitants. Machinery from the factories, household goods, articles made of metal, wool, rubber, and leather were seized and taken to Germany. The food supplies of the people, the farm animals, the draught horses, and even the farm implements were taken. In many instances farmhouses and

growing crops, orchards, and vineyards were ruthlessly destroyed. Belgium and northern France were reduced to a very desolate condition.

In addition to all this the Germans compelled many Belgians to leave their homes and families and go to Germany to work in the fields and factories and mines of that country. Probably two hundred thousand persons were forced



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A VILLAGE IN FRANCE RUINED BY GERMAN SHELL FIRE

to leave their homes and to work under compulsion of German masters. If it had not been for the assistance of America, England, and France, the remaining population of Belgium would have starved for lack of food.

Both armies had settled down to the plan of trench warfare. The trench lines were the battle lines, and stretched for four hundred miles from the North Sea to the Swiss border. These trenches were generally parallel, sometimes a mile or more apart, and elsewhere only a few hundred feet apart. In each trench lay the watchful soldiers, ready at any moment to take advantage of the

enemy. Between the trenches lay a strip of land known as "No Man's Land," for it belonged to whichever side could capture it. In front of each trench was generally a strong barbed wire entanglement, made by lacing barbed wire around strong posts and connecting it for great lengths. This was designed to stop the advance of the enemy.

The trenches varied in depth, but were always deep enough to protect the men as they moved about from place to place.



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MESS TIME IN THE TRENCHES

The lines curved and twisted, so as to avoid any long straight stretches, which would afford a flanking fire from the enemy in case of capture. Inside these trenches were dugouts where the men lived, ate, slept, kept ammunition and supplies. Some of these dugouts were forty feet deep. Communication

trenches connected the front lines with those in the rear for bringing up food and supplies. In good weather and in summer the trenches could be made endurable, but in rain or snow the trenches were full of water and mud, and the ground was often frozen so that the soldiers suffered great hardship.

Inside the front line trenches the soldiers were always prepared to repel an attack of the enemy. In dugouts, deep under ground, they hid when an artillery attack sent its heavy explosive shells. When the time came for an attack to be made, the soldiers made ready with gun and bayonet, and at a signal clambered out of the trench and "over the top," crossed "No Man's Land," and with the throwing of grenades and shouts of defiance dropped into the trenches of the enemy. In this way a few hundred feet might be gained by an attack, and an enemy's trench be captured; but at best trench warfare proved to be a slow means of conquering a strong foe.

4. TWO YEARS OF CONFLICT

The armies on the western front, secure in their trenches, faced each other in a deadlock which remained practically unbroken. Small engagements took place from time to time, but without much impression on the general line.

In **April, 1915**, the Germans introduced a new horror in warfare — that of poison gas. Some French and Canadian troops near Ypres saw a strange yellow cloud rolling on the ground from the German lines, borne by the wind toward the Allied trenches. It proved to be poison gas. Those who breathed it were said to be "gassed," and many suffered death by terrible tortures.

Later on the peril from poison gas was met by the use of masks, which were instantly adjusted at the sound of danger.

These masks communicated with a container holding chemicals which neutralized the effect of the gas.

Early in **1915** the Allies attempted to force a passage through the Dardanelles, in order to capture the city of Constantinople. The Turkish forts were too strong, however, and the Allied fleets were repulsed. Later on a large force was landed on the Gallipoli Peninsula in an effort to take Constantinople by a land attack, and a regular siege was begun against the Turkish and German forces. The fighting on the Peninsula continued month after month for the entire year; but without any distinct gains by the Allies. Finally, in **January, 1916**, the campaign was abandoned.

Campaign
against Con-
stantinople

In the meantime the Russian frontier was the scene of heavy operations. Early in the year the Russians had scored success in Galicia, capturing the fortress of Przemysl. In East Prussia another campaign had been projected by the Russians, but General von Hindenburg met the invaders at the Mazurian Lakes and completely defeated them.

Disaster to
Russian
forces in
Galicia
and Poland

The number of Russians killed, wounded, and prisoners was 150,000. In **June** the Germans and Austrians took the offensive, forced the Russians out of Galicia, recapturing all the territory, and at the same time overrunning all of Russian Poland. Russia lost 65,000 square miles of rich territory, which was given over to plunder and devastation. The inhabitants of Poland were made to suffer in the same way as those of Belgium.

After the failure of the Gallipoli campaign and the Russian disasters of **1915**, Bulgaria entered the war on the side of the Central Powers, **October, 1915**. Acting with Austria, her armies invaded Serbia and com-

Bulgaria
enters the
war

pletely crushed that almost defenseless country. Serbia now felt the same cruelties that had been inflicted upon Belgium and Poland. The Central Powers were storing up a long reckoning against the day of retribution.

Thus we see that the year 1915 had been a sad one for the Allies on the eastern front. The attempt to capture Constantinople was a failure, Poland and Galicia had been overrun by the Germans, the Russians had suffered a severe defeat in East Prussia, and Bulgarian and Austrian troops had devastated Serbia.

Turning to the west we find the main issue of 1915 on the seas. The Allied fleets had blockaded German ports, and the blockade was very rigid. Neutral countries lying next to Germany, who had been trading with the Central Powers, were cut down in their allowance of supplies so that trade with Germany could not be carried on by transshipment. Germany replied by declaring a war zone around the British Isles and warned all neutral vessels to keep out of those waters or suffer the consequences of being sunk by torpedoes from her undersea craft.

Germany now turned to an active submarine warfare to punish her enemies, and reduce the number of transports for troops and ships for supplies. The building of large numbers of submarines or U-boats was undertaken. These could operate for a long distance at sea, and could stay abroad for several weeks. Indeed some boats were built that crossed the ocean. These submarines were supplied with torpedoes to be launched at enemy craft, as well as with guns for surface combat. Lying in wait or slowly cruising in the waters around the British Isles or in any war zone, these boats would perceive through their almost invisible periscopes the presence of an enemy's merchant

vessel, transport, passenger ship, or war vessel. Then without warning the deadly torpedo was launched, a long straight ripple in the waters marked its flight, it struck with frightful explosion, and in a few minutes the stricken vessel was a helpless wreck on the surface or was slowly sinking to the bottom of the sea. It took many months for the Allies to learn how by laying mine-protected areas, or constructing



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A SUBMARINE AFLOAT

sea lanes, and the use of swift-sailing destroyers, to reduce the menace of the U-boat.

The most serious offense of the submarine campaign of Germany was the sinking of the *Lusitania*, the great British passenger liner, off the coast of Ireland, without warning, on the afternoon of **May 7, 1915**. Previous to its departure from New York notice had been given in the daily papers warning all passengers of the intention of Germany to destroy by submarine all enemy vessels found in the war zone. No one believed that a great passenger ship carrying women and children was in danger. The ship was crowded with passengers; and in a few days

Sinking of
the *Lusi-
tania*

after leaving port the deadly submarine carried out the threat. There were 1152 lives lost, men, women, and children, of whom 114 were known to be American citizens, among them a number of children.

A thrill of horror went through the world at this unheard-of act of warfare. A feeling of bitter indignation and resentment against Germany went over America, and war between the United States and Germany was narrowly averted for the time. Germany promised that hereafter no liners would be sunk without warning and without safety to the non-combatants.

Shortly after this occurrence Italy entered the conflict by declaring war against Austria, **May 23, 1915**. She was not bound by the Triple Alliance since that was merely a defensive league. On the other hand, Italy had an ancient grudge against Austria for holding certain territory around Trent and Trieste, that Italy felt rightfully belonged to her. This territory was called "Italia Irredenta," or the unredeemed portion of Italy. More than a year later Italy extended her declaration to include war on Germany.

Early in **1916** the Germans undertook to reduce the strong fort of Verdun on the eastern frontier of France. It was a very powerful and important stronghold, and if captured would expose the Allied armies in France to a flank movement and all French territory to invasion. A titanic struggle ensued, lasting many months. Hundreds of thousands of troops were hurled against the French barriers, to be mowed down like grain. The most powerful guns were brought up and used in vain. It was an orgy of battle, in which lives were counted as nothing. The French set their face grimly to the conflict and to the sacrifice. Their

cry was, "They shall not pass." By the end of the year the Germans had lost a half million men and the losses of the French were equally severe, but Verdun was saved. The armies of Germany retired in defeat. The German fighting machine had been put to its mightiest test, and had failed.

In **July, 1916**, there was a forward movement of the Allies along the Somme River. For nearly five months the battle raged all along the front lines, but in the end the Allies gained



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THE BRITISH TANKS WERE ARMORED LAND CRUISERS

only a few miles. It was in this battle that the British first used the "tanks," a kind of armored land cruiser that thereafter played an important part in the war.

These tanks were great lumbering machines, so built that they could cut through barbed wire, cross ditches, pull through mud, and over fields. Inside the armored plates was a crew of machine gunners, whose business **Tanks** it was to penetrate the enemy's lines, roll over the machine-gun nests, mow down the enemy's soldiers, and do as much damage as possible. They moved too rapidly for artillery to

be brought to bear upon them, while the lighter guns had no effect upon their armored sides.

In **August, 1916**, Roumania entered the war on the side of the Allies. This brought little comfort to the Allied cause, and much disaster to Roumania, for the forces of Germany soon overran the Roumanian territory, capturing quantities of oil and wheat and strengthening the communication with Turkey.

The end of **1916** saw little change in the general condition of the war, but there was evidence of exhaustion of men and supplies on both sides as the great conflict went on.

5. THE UNITED STATES ENTERS THE WAR

Germany was now prepared to prosecute her threat to destroy all vessels found in the war zone. **January 31, 1917**, **Unrestricted submarine warfare** Count von Bernstorff, the German ambassador to the United States, presented a note to the Secretary of State announcing that Germany would begin the next day an unrestricted submarine warfare against all vessels, neutral and otherwise, found in the waters around Great Britain and France. The note said, "All ships met within the zone will be sunk." President Wilson replied by handing Count von Bernstorff his passports and recalling Ambassador Gerard from Berlin. In this way diplomatic relations with Germany were severed.

President Wilson went before Congress, **February 26**, and asked for authority "to supply our merchant ships with defensive arms, should that become necessary, and with the means of using them, and to employ any other instrumentalities or methods that may be necessary and adequate to protect our ships and our people in their legitimate and peaceful pursuits on the seas."

About this time a note was published, addressed by Dr. Zimmermann, the German foreign minister, to the German minister in Mexico. This note had been inter-
 cepted before it reached its destination. It con-
 tained a proposal for Mexico to enter into an alliance with Germany against the United States. The money was to be furnished by Germany, and Mexican troops were to invade Texas, New Mexico, and Arizona. The note was dated twelve days before the United States was informed of Germany's plan for unrestricted submarine warfare and while those countries were at peace with each other. The publication of the Zimmermann note still further strained the relations between the two countries.

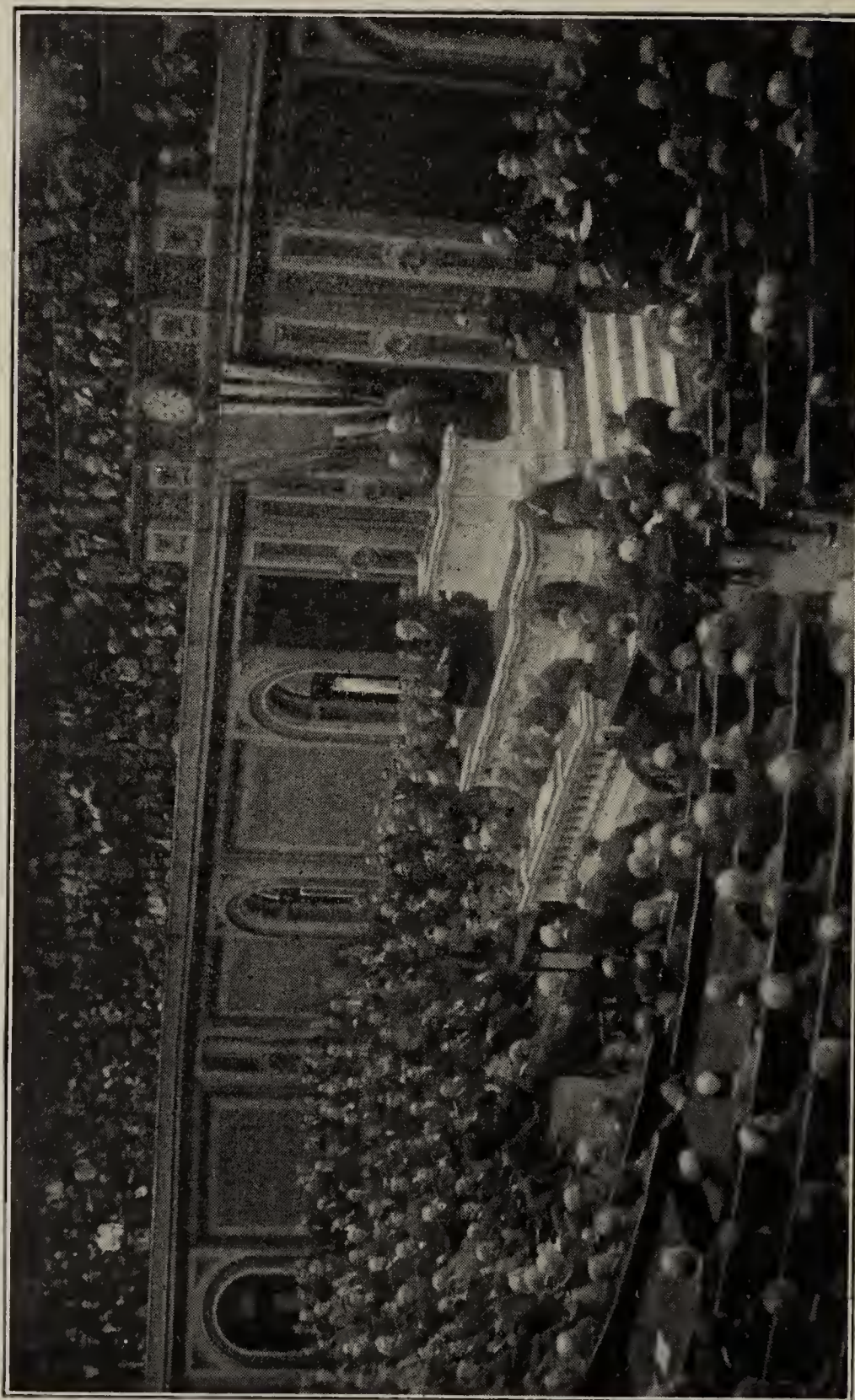
The Zimmermann affair

President Wilson called Congress together in extra session, and **April 2, 1917**, delivered his famous war message. He told them that "vessels of every kind, what-
 ever their flag, their character, their errand,
 have been ruthlessly sent to the bottom without
 warning, and without thought of help or mercy for those on board." He furthermore said, "We will not choose the path of submission and suffer the most sacred rights of our nation and our people to be ignored or violated."

President Wilson's war message

He advised Congress "to declare the recent course of the Imperial German Government to be in fact nothing less than war against the government and people of the United States, . . . to put the country in a more thorough state of defense, . . . to exert all its power and employ all its resources to bring the Government of the German Empire to terms and end the war."

The purpose of this government the President stated as follows: "We have no selfish ends to serve. We desire no conquest, no dominion. We seek no indemnities for our-

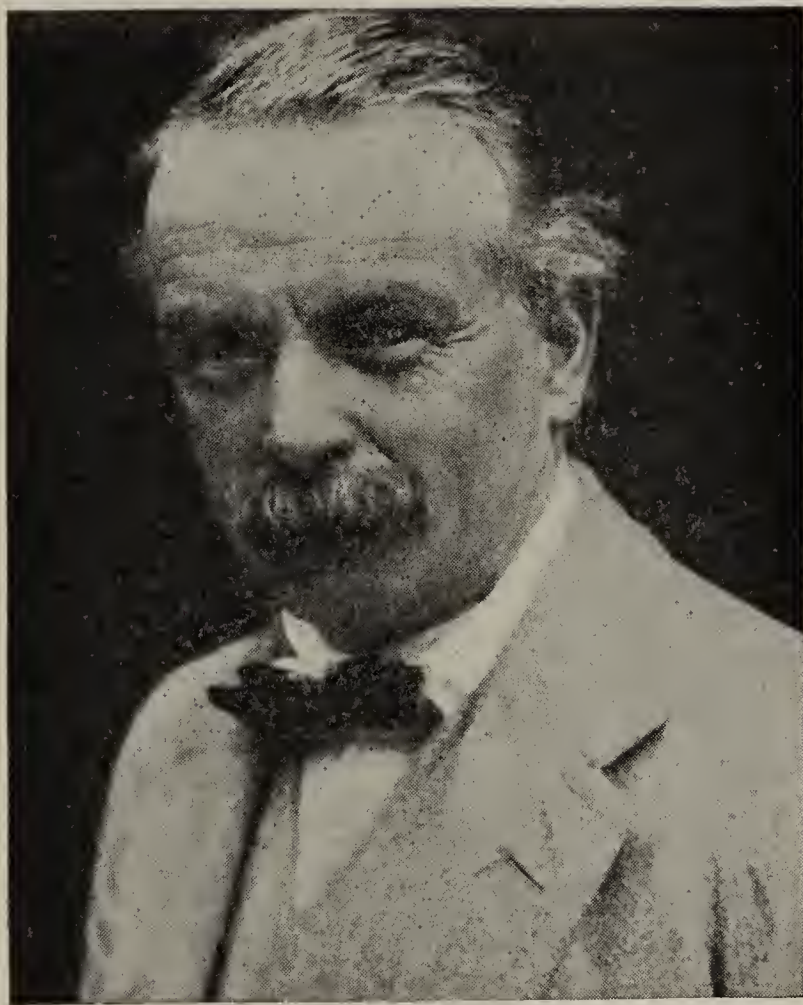


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PRESIDENT WILSON DELIVERING HIS WAR MESSAGE, APRIL 2, 1917

selves, no material compensation for the sacrifices we shall freely make. We are but one of the champions of the rights of mankind. . . . We shall fight . . . for democracy, for the right of those who submit to authority to have a voice in their own government, for the rights and liberties of small nations, for a universal dominion of right by such a concert of free peoples as shall bring peace and safety to all nations."

April 6, 1917, Congress resolved that Declaration of war "the state of war between the United States and the Imperial German Government which has thus been thrust upon the United States is formally declared." During the same month Austria and Tur-



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DAVID LLOYD GEORGE, PRIME MINISTER OF ENGLAND DURING THE WORLD WAR

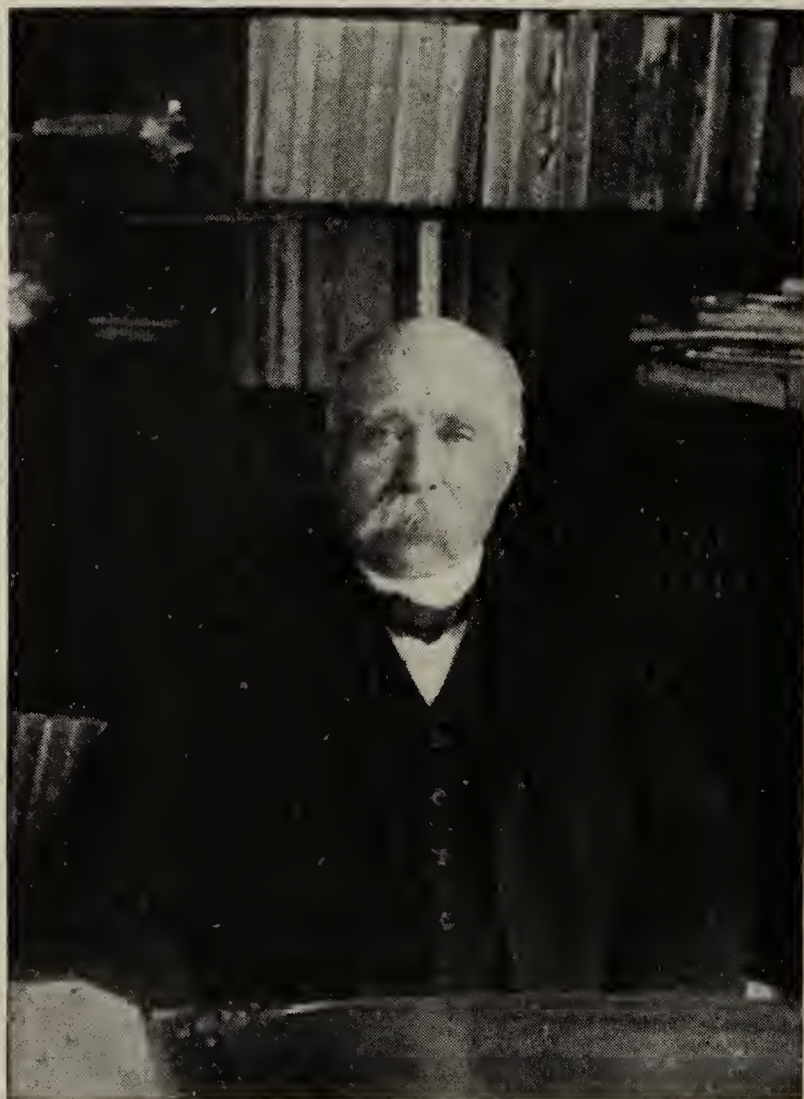
key severed diplomatic relations with the United States. War was not declared against Austria until December 7. In this way our great country entered the war and took its stand by the side of the Allies.

Conditions in Russia were now becoming serious. There was shortage of food, and the old discontent among the people

at the autocratic authority of the Czar had developed into a revolution that threatened to overthrow the government.

Conditions
in Russia

Hungry and dissatisfied crowds rioted in the streets of Petrograd, the soldiers joined the



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GEORGES CLEMENCEAU, PREMIER OF FRANCE DURING
THE WORLD WAR

streets of Petrograd, the soldiers joined the mobs, the revolution spread to other parts of the empire, Russia became disorganized and confused and at the mercy of German emissaries and armies.

March 15, 1917, the Czar signed a paper abdicating the throne of Russia. The revolutionists took charge of the government, declared the monarchy at an end and a republic established, and began at once to limit their interests in

the war. The Czar was held prisoner for more than a year, and was finally executed.

After much internal disorder, the Bolsheviki, or the extreme socialist party of Russia, gained control of affairs. Strikes, riots, and revolts occurred in many parts of Russia, and Germany secretly aided the revolutionists by her agents

and money. The Bolsheviki declared in favor of peace. At Brest-Litovsk, a town in Russian Poland, a treaty was forced by Germany upon Russia, which deprived her of a large area of territory, including about one-fourth of her population, one-third of her food-stuffs, one-third of her manufactures, and three-fourths of her coal and iron. It was a disgraceful treaty, which in the final negotiations Germany was compelled to renounce. In this way Russia withdrew from the war and was a helpless victim in the hands of her enemies.

**The Bolshe-
viki make
peace with
Germany**

After the United States declared war on Germany, many other nations followed, either declaring war or breaking off diplomatic relations. Altogether twenty-eight nations, large and small, had taken part in the great struggle. So many nations became involved that it was estimated that eleven-twelfths of the world's population was engaged. The map of the world was indeed black.

**The world
at war**

Pursuing her policy of unrestricted submarine warfare, Germany proceeded to launch a very destructive campaign in 1917. She evidently was provided with abundant under-sea craft, for the amount of damage done at first was appalling. For six months vessels were destroyed three times faster than they could be built by the Allies. It took about a year for the Allies to control the danger, and balance the building of ships with their destruction by submarines.

The methods used to combat the submarines were various. Steel nets were sunk in channels in which the submarines were caught in a way similar to that by which fish are caught. Fleets of destroyers, trawlers, and specially constructed boats, constantly hunted the submarines and sank them on sight. Depth bombs were dropped after the submerging boats by de-

**Combating
the subma-
rines**

stroyers and low-flying aircraft. The bombs exploded near the submarines and crippled or destroyed them. Near the end of the war, the menace from the undersea boats had been so much reduced that ships were being built three times faster than they were being destroyed, and transports crossed the ocean in comparative safety.

6. PREPARING FOR VICTORY

The United States entered the war with earnestness and vigor. A portion of our navy was sent abroad to aid the



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MARSHAL JOFFRE AND THE FRENCH COMMISSIONERS IN NEW YORK

Allies in blockading the enemy ports, and our torpedo boats and destroyers aided in chasing the submarines. Military missions from England, France, and other countries came to the United States to confer over the situation and arrange for immediate supplies in the field. The Allied world took

new hope when this great nation threw all its wealth of men and resources into the struggle.

A large army was at once provided for by a selective draft, instead of by voluntary enlistment. The first registration was **June 5, 1917**, followed by a second registra- The se-
 tion a year later covering the ages from 21 to 31 lective draft
 years. In these registrations over ten and a half million men were enrolled. A third registration took place **September 12, 1918**, extending the age limits from 18 to 45 years. In this registration over thirteen million men more were registered. Altogether over twenty-four million men were registered, about one-half of the male population of the entire country.

Out of this registration, and including the Regular Army and Navy, the Marine Corps, and the National Guard, a vast force of nearly five million men was selected for use during the war, and made ready to fight the battles of the Allies. No such assembling of men for warlike purposes had ever before been undertaken by a nation which was confessedly unprepared for war.

To provide for the training of these men, unused to war, thirty-two camps and cantonments were built in different parts of the country, providing shelter, training Camps and
 grounds, mess halls, hospitals, and supply depart- canton-
 ments for over a million and a half men at one ments
 time. These camps and cantonments were built with unexampled speed, and as if by magic. Where one month stood a forest or extended a field, the next month saw a camp city with all its appointments, ready for the thousands of soldiers that began to pour in. The nation was mobilized for war, and the rapidity of preparation and the enthusiasm of the men was the wonder and admiration of the world.

The average American soldier received six months' training in this country before he sailed. He had about two months' training overseas before he entered the battle line. Then he was assigned to a quiet sector for a month before he was given the full shock of battle. The training was intensive and the discipline severe, but the men stood it well and in the end



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THE AVERAGE AMERICAN SOLDIER RECEIVED SIX MONTHS' TRAINING BEFORE BEING SENT OVERSEAS

gave a wonderful account of themselves as soldiers of great courage and daring.

The industries of the country were turned promptly to the manufacture of supplies and munitions of war. All the great powder plants, gun and shell factories were put in operation for the government. Nearly two and a half million rifles were made for use abroad before the production was stopped. The

Taking over
the indus-
tries

making of machine guns on a large scale was undertaken, nearly a quarter of a million being turned out during the war.

When the munition factories of the country were in full operation there was never any lack at any time of a full fighting equipment for the men overseas. As a matter of fact the World War was largely fought by the Allies with American powder and high explosives.

The problem of feeding, clothing, and equipping an army of four or five million men is a serious one. A soldier needs everything he uses in civilian life, and in larger quantities. In the matter of blankets alone the army used in 1918 two and a quarter times as many as the whole country produced in 1914. In the matter of coats it took eight million to keep our men overseas supplied during the last year of the war.

In the matter of food there was an increasing demand for the very best and most wholesome food the country could supply, and in sufficient quantity to keep the men in health and vigor. There was never a question as to the abundance and quality of the food supply for our men in camp or overseas. The men returned generally in better health, strength, and vigor than they were when they entered the service. The whole resources of the country were put at their command.

Having trained and equipped the men for service, the demand for them on the battle line grew daily more urgent. All the resources of this country and Great Britain were used to get the men overseas as soon as they were prepared. During the nineteen months of our participation in the war, 2,084,000 soldiers were carried from this country to France. Of these a million and a half were carried in six months. During the latter part of the war ten thousand men a day was

Feeding and
clothing the
soldiers

the usual rate. During **July, 1918**, the number of troops carried over was 306,000.

No such movement of troops across the ocean was considered possible until it was done. Germany was amazed to know that we could actually put an army of two million fighting men in France inside a year and a half, and provide them



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TRANSPORT CARRYING AMERICAN TROOPS

with everything they needed. Only about three hundred soldiers were lost in crossing the seas.

The large transports, loaded with thousands of men, quietly left the American ports and stole across the ocean with sides painted to prevent easy recognition. At night the sailing was without lights. On all sides were convoying destroyers keeping a sharp lookout for submarines. Every day a big ship left, and one landed on the other side and unloaded. It was one long

Transporting the troops overseas

stream of transports and supply ships safeguarded against danger, crossing the ocean to the surprise and chagrin of the lurking and alarmed foe.

In order to conserve the food and fuel supplies of the country the government undertook to regulate the amount of food and fuel that the civil population might use. Limits were placed on wheat, sugar, meat, and some other articles of food, and the people were asked voluntarily to abstain from eating certain foods

Conserving
food and
fuel



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THE HARBOR OF BREST, FRANCE, WHERE MANY OF THE AMERICAN TROOPS WERE LANDED

for one day in each week in order to provide more for the soldiers and the needy population in Europe.

In the same way an administration was appointed to apportion the use of coal to necessary industries and for household consumption. In order to provide more daylight working hours and thereby save artificial light and coal consumption, the clocks of the country were ordered set forward

one hour from the last Sunday in March to the last Sunday in October, at which time they were set back one hour.

In addition to food and fuel control, the government took over the nearly seven hundred railroad systems of the country as a war measure. The roads were then
**Taking over
the railroads** operated as one system under the direction of the government. Passenger service was reduced, troop trains were given right of way, supply trains and freight trains were sent by the shortest route, and the business of the country afforded the best possible transportation facilities. The government remained in control of the railroads until **March 1, 1920**, at which time they were turned over to their original owners.

War costs vast sums of money and must be paid for. It can be paid by loans payable in the future, or by taxes payable at once. The government adopted both
**Paying for
the war** means. There were four Liberty Loan subscriptions taken during the war. The government asked for fourteen billion dollars by the sale of interest-bearing Liberty Bonds. The response was overwhelming, the people subscribing about eighteen billion dollars. After the armistice was signed a Victory Bond issue of four and a half billion dollars was also largely oversubscribed. In addition to the above, the Treasury Department authorized the sale of two billion dollars' worth of War Savings Stamps.

The government laid taxes on incomes, and on many of the amusements, luxuries, and business transactions of the people in order to raise money for carrying on the war. These taxes amounted to six or seven billion dollars a year, about one-third the cost of the war.

When the war was in full progress the cost mounted to nearly two million dollars an hour. The total cost to

America of the war was larger than the entire amount spent on running the government for the previous one hundred years. It would have carried on the Revolutionary War for more than a thousand years, and was nearly equal in value to the world's output of gold for the last four hundred years. Cost of the war

Many organizations aided in the conduct of the war. The American Red Cross Society, the Young Men's Christian Association, the Knights of Columbus, the Jewish Welfare Board, the Salvation Army, the Young Women's Christian Association, the American Library Association, and other organizations threw their resources and energies into aiding the work with the soldiers. In this way not only the government, but the civilian population, men, women, and children, who could not get to the front, gave their money, time, work, and thought to the comfort, support, and welfare of the men who were fighting the battles of freedom. Civilian organizations in the war

7. THE GERMAN CAMPAIGN OF 1918

In order to make perfectly clear the war aims and peace terms of the United States, President Wilson addressed Congress in **January, 1918**, setting forth the conditions of ending the war and establishing a lasting peace. These conditions are generally known as the "fourteen points," and are substantially as follows:

1. No private understandings or secret treaties of any kind between nations.
2. Absolute freedom of navigation upon the seas alike in peace and in war.
3. The establishment of an equality of trade conditions among all nations.
4. National armaments will be reduced to the lowest point consistent with domestic safety.
5. The rights of the people

in all colonies shall have equal weight with the rights of the government owning the colonies. 6. The evacuation of all Russian territory, and the recognition of the rights of the Russian people to govern themselves. 7. The evacuation and restoration of Belgium. 8. The evacuation and restoration of all French territory, and the return by Germany of Alsace-Lorraine to France. 9. The readjustment of the frontiers of Italy. 10. The people of Austria-Hungary shall determine for themselves their own government. 11. Occupied territory in the Balkan states shall be evacuated and restored, Serbia shall have access to the sea, and the nations of the world shall guarantee independence and peace to the several Balkan states. 12. The Turkish rule over subject peoples shall be controlled, and the Dardanelles opened for free passage to commerce. 13. An independent Polish state shall be established. 14. A general league of nations for the protection of all states great and small alike.

President Wilson submits the fourteen points or conditions of peace

Early in 1918 it was evident that Germany was making preparations for a supreme effort to break through the Allied lines in France. Many German troops had been withdrawn from the east, where they were no longer needed to oppose the Russians. Furthermore, Germany desired to crush France and England before the United States could land a large and effective army in Europe.

The actual direction of the German armies was placed in the hands of General von Ludendorff, though General von Hindenburg remained chief of staff. General John J. Pershing was the Commander-in-Chief of the American Expeditionary Forces in Europe.

The battle line extended about four hundred miles, from

Ostend on the North Sea to the Swiss border, and more than three million men were finally engaged in mortal combat.



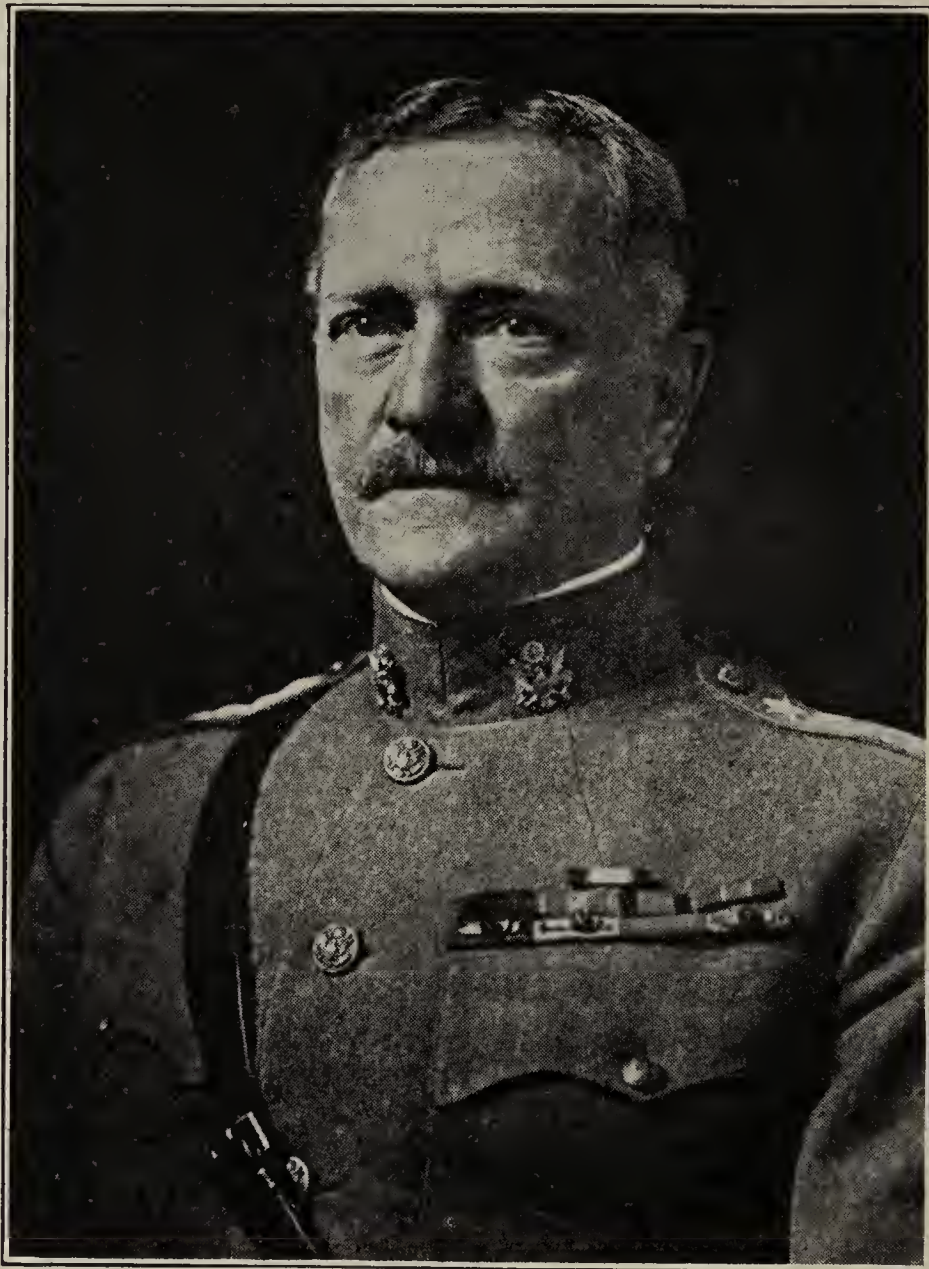
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MARSHAL FOCH

The first German offensive movement of the year, or drive as it is generally called, began **March 21, 1918**, along the old battlefield of the Somme. In seven-
 teen days the Germans had forced the British and French back and came within twelve miles

The first
 German
 offensive
 movement
 of 1918

of the city of Amiens, where large quantities of British supplies were stored. In this battle, known as the Picardy offensive, about two thousand American troops were engaged.



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GEN. JOHN J. PERSHING

The Allied nations now saw the wisdom of a unified command, instead of a separate command for each army. The French general, Marshal Ferdinand Foch, was appointed Commander-in-Chief of all the Allied forces. General John J.

Pershing put his army at the disposal of Marshal Foch to be used wherever it was most needed.

The second offensive movement was also directed against the British in Flanders, between the cities of Arras and Ypres. The purpose of this drive was to capture the Channel ports and prevent the landing of British troops. Field Marshal Haig in command of the British forces told his men they were fighting with their backs to the wall, and must hold at all costs. After ten days of desperate encounter the advance was checked and the ports were saved.

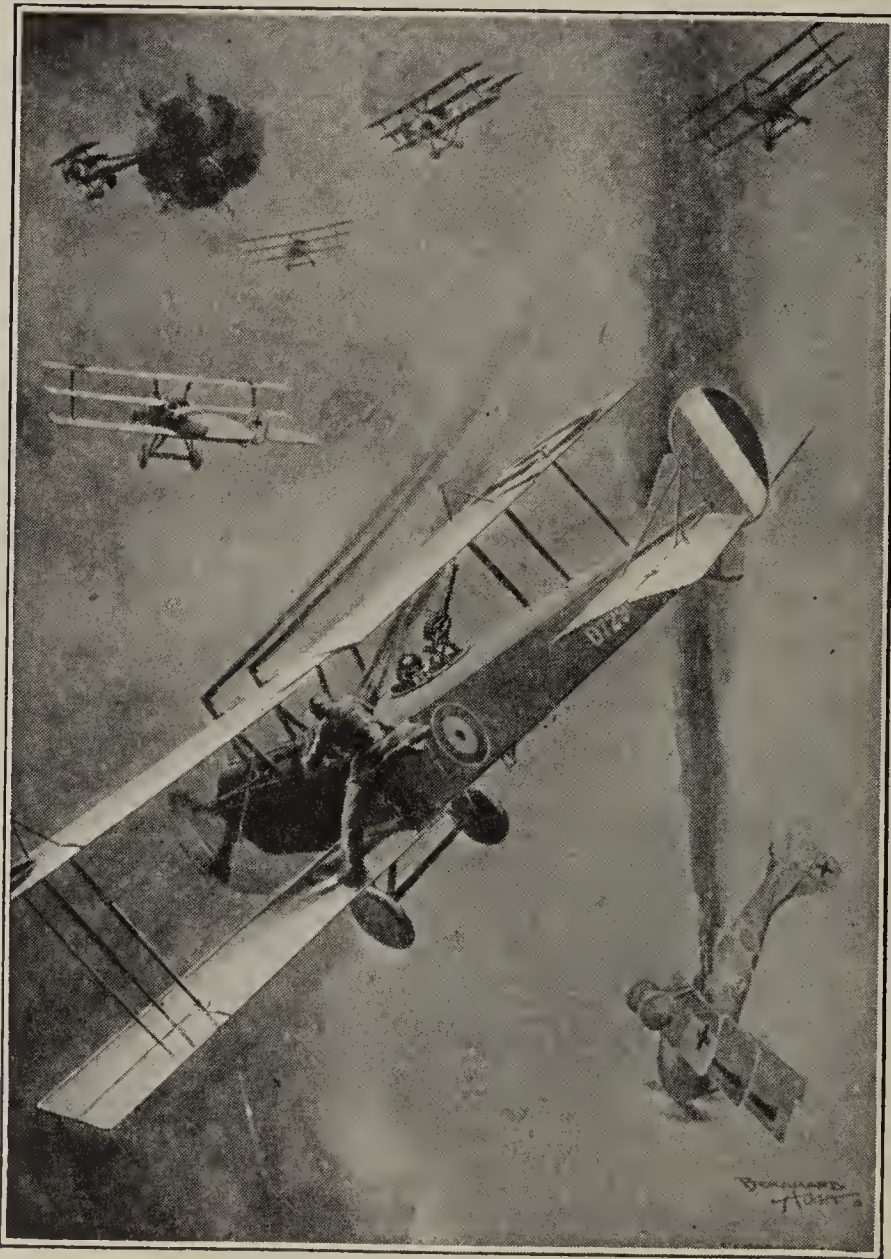
The third offensive of the Germans was launched **May 27** from the Aisne River, between Rheims and Soissons, and was directed toward Paris. In a few days the enemy had captured Soissons, had reached the Marne River, and was advancing toward Paris. It was a critical period, for the Germans had gotten within forty-four miles of Paris. By desperate fighting and with the assistance of American infantry and marines, the French succeeded in checking the advance. The American forces held the line at the village of Château-Thierry with stubborn bravery, showing that they were equal in valor and endurance to the veteran soldiers of other nations.

By these last drives the Germans had established two salients or wedges into the Allied territory, which it was their purpose to connect into one. Therefore, **June 9**, the Germans launched their fourth drive between Soissons and Montdidier along a front of twenty-two miles. The Allied army held its ground after the enemy had gained six miles.

All the new methods of warfare were brought into use by both sides. The movement of troops was concealed by screens of smoke, and their advance was protected by artillery barrages. Airplanes hovered over the enemy's lines for the

purpose of observation, bombing, and giving directions for artillery fire. Many a thrilling combat in the air took place between the aviators of the Allies and those of the enemy. Huge observation balloons were anchored, from which messages were sent to the batteries below. So intense was the firing and so

Airplanes,
artillery
barrage,
balloons

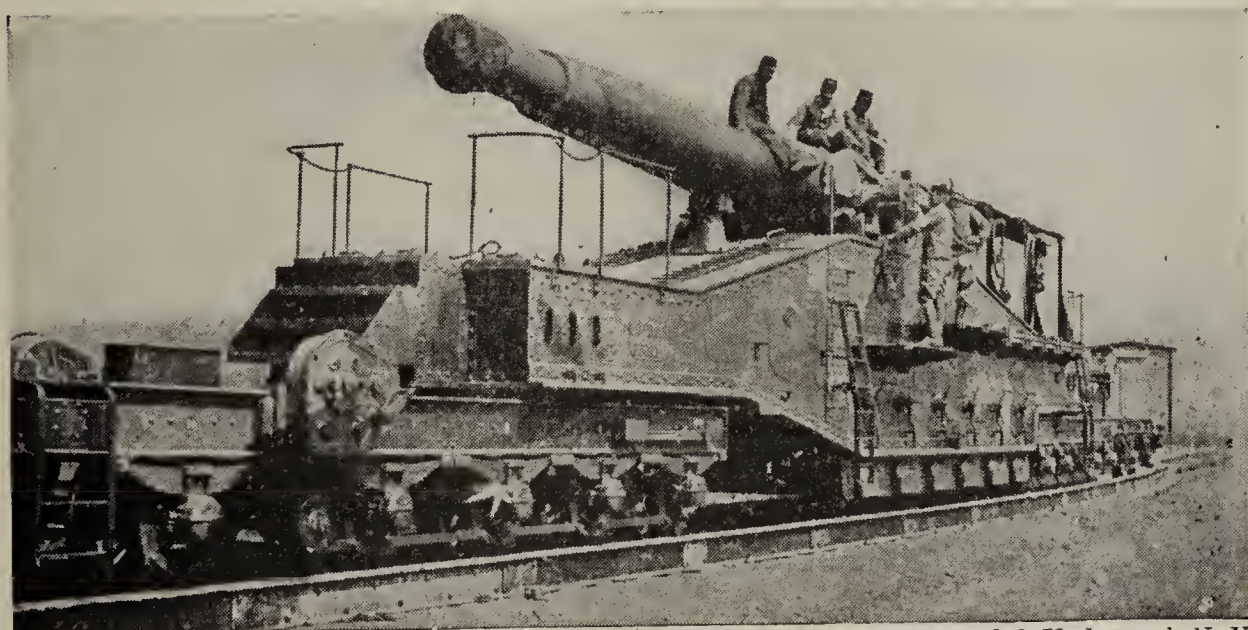


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A THRILLING COMBAT IN THE AIR

terrible the explosion of shells that large areas of land were plowed up or pitted with shell holes and craters.

The use of long-range guns was resorted to for destroying railroads, depots of supplies, and bridges, and for the general purpose of demoralizing the troops. The Germans succeeded in making a long-range gun that fired a shell a distance of seventy-five miles. The war assumed a condition of frightfulness, for the German government was putting its final strength into these mighty efforts. In the



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AMERICAN GUN ON SOMME FRONT

meantime the United States was hurrying troops overseas and preparing them for the front-line trenches.

The fifth and last offensive movement of the Germans began **July 15**, and was along a hundred-mile front east of Rheims and along the Marne River. It was the last despairing effort of an almost exhausted foe.

The Allies were prepared for the onset and firmly held their ground. The Germans were blocked everywhere, their forces were rapidly becoming discouraged, and they were unable to make another attack upon the strengthening forces of the Allies. The second battle of the Marne was their last great effort.

By this time the United States had poured into Europe more than a million and a quarter soldiers, and as the armies of Germany were becoming exhausted, the armies of the Allies were being strengthened. At the time of the last drive the Allied forces were larger and better supplied than the armies of the Central Powers, and the tide had turned against Germany. All her offensive movements had failed, and from now on she had to wage a defensive warfare.

8. THE END OF THE WAR

After the second battle of the Marne it became evident that the German drives had spent their force. The offensive then passed to the Allies. **July 18, 1918**, Marshal Foch began his great counter-attacks all along the line that finally ended in complete disaster to the armies of the Central Powers. The enemy was driven back from point to point. Before he could recover from one blow another one was delivered in a different place. By the end of **September** he was driven out of all the recently acquired territory, retreating sullenly and devastating the country as he retired.

The American forces grew more numerous with each month, and were moved up to the front lines and used in the final battles of the war. Over a quarter of a million of them were engaged in Foch's first offensive movements along the Aisne and Marne rivers. In **September** the reduction of the St. Mihiel salient was largely accomplished by American troops. Over a half million were engaged. In twenty-four hours the salient was reduced and the Germans were in full retreat.

The Meuse-Argonne offensive was the largest battle in which the American troops engaged. Nearly a million and

a quarter of American troops took part, the battle lasting forty-seven days. At the end of that time the American troops had penetrated the Argonne Forest, had reached the outskirts of Sedan, and had made the German line untenable.

There were many daring exploits during the war performed by the intrepid soldiers of the United States. Instances of individual courage were numerous, in battles in the air with airplanes, in doing duty at sea, in the handling of machine guns



SERGEANT YORK KILLS TWENTY MEN AS THEY CHARGE UPON HIM

and heavy artillery, in exploring the dangerous neutral ground, and in actual hand-to-hand conflict with the enemy.

Among the most notable exploits was that of Sergeant York, of Tennessee, who in the Argonne section found himself alone with a few companions facing a large number of Germans. By skillful shooting and strategy, York and his companions captured one hundred and thirty-two men, and put twenty-five machine guns out of action. York himself killed twenty men with his own pistol,

The exploit
of Sergeant
York

as they charged down hill to attack him while he lay protected behind a number of prisoners he had taken.

By the end of **September**, Foch had taken a quarter of a million prisoners, with large quantities of supplies and munitions, and the Germans were in retreat all along the line. Even the famous Hindenburg Line with its powerful defenses yielded to the attacks of the Allied forces and was broken through in the onward movement of Foch's victorious troops. The Germans now saw their case was hopeless. Their dreams of conquest had vanished.

In the meantime disaster fell upon the Central Powers on the eastern front. A strong Allied offensive on the Balkan front brought Bulgaria to terms and that government withdrew from the war at the end of **September**. Turkey suffered severe defeats from the hands of a British army in Palestine, and asked for an armistice late in **October**. Revolution broke out in Austria, independent republics were set up by different races in her borders, and the Italians gained an overwhelming victory along the Piave River. Austria now deserted her ally and asked for peace early in **November**.

Thus Germany saw her allies defeated on all fronts and begging for peace on any terms. Her own armies were in retreat, her strongest lines of defense had been smashed, her soldiers were demoralized, and her civilian population was clamoring for an end of the war. There was scarcity of food and clothing, and a shortage in nearly everything the people needed. Millions of soldiers had been killed or wounded, and all the industries of the nation paralyzed. The war debt was already overwhelming, and victory was now out of the question.

Demoralization of the German army and people

Under these conditions the German Chancellor addressed

a note to President Wilson asking for an armistice, and requesting that the United States take steps to restore peace on the terms that the President had already laid down. President Wilson referred the settlement of the armistice to the military advisers of the Allied Powers. Envoys from the German government met Marshal Foch and received from him the terms of an armistice, which, being accepted **November 11, 1918**, brought hostilities to an end.

The terms of the armistice were the evacuation by Germany of all invaded territory, including Alsace-Lorraine; the surrender of large quantities of heavy and field guns, machine guns, airplanes, railroad equipment, and of all submarine boats; the internment of a large number of warships; the return of all prisoners and deported civilians; reparation for damage done, and the return of all property taken away. Those terms made it impossible for Germany to renew the war, for they meant surrender of her naval forces and her army equipment, and the withdrawal of her troops to her own territory.

About the time the armistice was accepted the German Emperor formally abdicated his throne, and took refuge in Holland. Germany was thus left at the most critical period of her history to form a new government of a republican character to deal with the perplexing problems of peace.

In order to settle definitely the terms of peace with Germany and her allies, a Peace Conference of delegates from all the Allied nations was held at Versailles, near Paris, beginning in **February, 1919**. President Wilson felt it to be his duty to attend this conference in person, as the leading member of the delegation from the United States. After months of deliberation a formal agreement was reached between the Allied and Associated Powers and Germany, and signed at Versailles, **June 28, 1919**, making a treaty of

peace with Germany which materially changed the boundaries of that country, compelled the payment of immense indemnities, and demanded reparation for the destruction caused by her armies. Similar terms were offered Austria.

The treaty of peace contained provisions for the establishment of a League of Nations, the purpose of which is to prevent war by the limitation of armaments, and the reference of disputes to an international tribunal, and the uniting of all nations into an agreement in so far as possible to preserve peace and avoid the unnecessary horrors and havoc of warfare.

Thus we see that our country has grown in three hundred years from a small colony to a noble and mighty nation, taking rank as one of the great powers of the world. We have surveyed the early struggle for liberty, the mighty conflict with the mother country, the growth of our institutions, the sad tragedy of our Civil War, and have seen, in later years and in the great conflict of many nations where we bore our part so nobly, that our people have become one people, with one patriotism, one purpose, and one destiny. With our hearts united in a great love for our country, let us say that we are, first of all, Americans, and that our whole country shall claim our patriotic service.

TOPICS

Europe before the World War. The Franco-Prussian War; indemnity paid by France; Alsace-Lorraine. Progress of the German Empire. German military system; military preparation; getting ready for war. German ambition for territory; for trade; for a Berlin-to-Bagdad railway; for world power. Militarism in Europe. Triple Alliance. Triple Entente. Hague Conference of 1899 and results. Hague Conventions of 1907.

How the World War Began. The accusations against Germany. The Serbs and Slavic races and Austria. Assassination of Francis Fer-

dinand and his wife. The ultimatum to Serbia and the reply. Declaration of war on Serbia. Mobilizing troops; Russia's action. Germany's demands and declarations of war. Germany's plan of war; reasons for invading Luxemburg and Belgium. Violating the treaties of neutrality. Advance into Belgium. Great Britain enters the war. Belgium overrun and France invaded. First battle of the Marne.

Progress of the War. Fighting in Flanders. The Russians defeated in East Prussia; success in Galicia. War declared against Turkey. Blockading the German fleet; destroying the raiders; capturing the colonies. German ravages in occupied territory; deporting the Belgians; trench warfare.

Two Years of Conflict. Poison gas; gas masks. The Gallipoli campaign. Campaigns on the eastern front. Bulgaria enters the war; invasion of Serbia. Blockades and war zones. Submarine warfare. Sinking the *Lusitania*. Italy enters the war. Attack on Verdun; the result. Battle of the Somme. The tanks. Roumania enters the war.

The United States Enters the War. Germany's note of unrestricted warfare; action of President Wilson. Address to Congress, February 26. The Zimmermann Note. President Wilson's war message to Congress; advice to Congress; the purpose of the United States. Declaration of war. Conditions in Russia. Abdication of the Czar; the revolutionists; execution of the Czar. The Bolsheviki; peace of Brest-Litovsk. Extent of the war. Destructive submarine warfare; combating the submarines.

Preparing for Victory. First steps taken. The selective drafts; men registered; the size of the army selected. Camps and cantonments; training the soldiers. Using the industrial plants of the country. Feeding, clothing, and equipping the soldiers. Getting the men overseas; transports. Conserving food; coal; daylight-saving law. Taking over the railroads. The Liberty Loans; other sources of revenue. Cost of war. Organizations that aided in the war.

The German Campaign of 1918. President Wilson's fourteen points. Germany's plans for the year. The Picardy offensive. Marshal Foch in command. The drive in Flanders. The drive on Paris; the American forces at Château-Thierry. The fourth drive. The second battle of the Marne. Modern methods of warfare; smoke screens; airplanes; balloons; long-range guns. Turning of the tide against the Germans.

The End of the War. Foch begins his counter-attacks; retreat of the Germans. American forces in battle. St. Mihiel salient. Meuse-Argonne offensive. Exploit of Sergeant York. Condition at end of September, 1918. Disaster to the Central Powers on the eastern front. Bulgaria; Turkey; Austria. Condition of the German army and terms of the armistice. Abdication of the German Emperor. The Peace Conference; the Treaty of Peace. The League of Nations.

SUBJECTS FOR STUDY

What dangers and hardships attend large military preparations? In what way could Germany have prevented the war? Discuss the invasion of Belgium and the violation of the treaties. Discuss the use of poison gas, fire, and other methods of inflicting death by painful means. What is your opinion of the right of Germany to sink neutral vessels in war zones? What were the reasons that made the United States enter the war? What influence did the United States have on the final result? What advantages or disadvantages will result from a League of Nations?

COMPOSITION

Write a description of the devastation in Belgium and France by a supposed eyewitness.

Write the experience of a soldier going "over the top."

If you had been on the *Lusitania*, describe your experience and the way you were rescued.

MAP QUESTIONS

Locate Liège; Louvain; the Marne River. Trace the line of the farthest German advance. Locate Galicia. Name the Balkan states. Name the principal cities on the eastern front that became conspicuous during the war. Locate the Gallipoli Peninsula; Constantinople; Verdun; Soissons; Rheims; Amiens. At what place was the Treaty of Peace signed?

Collateral Reading. The literature of the World War is so abundant and so easy of access that the student is referred to any library or catalogue, where he will find material to satisfy his inquiry upon any phase of the great struggle. Many publishers of schoolbooks have issued short accounts of the war that will be interesting to children.

APPENDIX

REVIEW QUESTIONS

The Old World. Describe the ancient Teutons. What is meant by the Middle Ages? Describe the visit of the Norsemen to Vinland. Name the classes of people in the Middle Ages. In what did the lords and barons live? Describe the life of the peasants. How did the towns begin? What is meant by "free cities"? What was the influence of the church in the Middle Ages? What were the occupations of the monks? What were the Crusades? Describe the adventures of Marco Polo.

Discovering and Exploring the New World. When and where was Columbus born? Tell some incidents of his early life and of his disappointments. Name the three vessels, the port, and date of departure, of the voyage of discovery. When and where was land first discovered? Describe the voyage of John Cabot. For whom was America named? How and by whom was the Pacific Ocean discovered? What were the adventures of Magellan?

Early Colonies in the New World. By whom and when was Florida discovered? Describe the wanderings of De Soto. What settlements in America were made by the French? Describe the Spanish Armada and its fate. Where was Raleigh's first colony planted and what was its fate? Describe Raleigh's second colony. Name the two English companies that received grants of land in America. Describe some of the adventures of John Smith. What was the "Starving Time"? When and where was slavery introduced into America? When and where did the Pilgrims settle?

Later Colonies in the New World. By whom was New York first settled? Who was Peter Stuyvesant? By whom was Maryland founded? How did that State get its name? By whom were the Carolinas settled? Describe the character and purpose of Oglethorpe. When was Savannah founded?

Establishment of the English. Who were the Cavaliers and where did they settle? Describe Bacon's Rebellion. Who was John Eliot?

What was the fate of King Philip? Describe the exploit of Colonel Goffe. How was the charter of Connecticut saved? What two Frenchmen first explored the Mississippi? Describe the voyage of La Salle and the naming of Louisiana. Describe the journey of George Washington to the French settlement. Describe the defeat of Braddock. Describe the capture of Quebec.

Life in the Colonies. What were the three forms of government of the colonies in America? Describe the New England township. Describe court days in the Southern Colonies. Describe the pioneer's home. What were some of the early customs in New York? What were the industries in New England? What were the industries of the South? Describe the stocks and the pillory. Describe early travel by stagecoach. When and where was Harvard College founded? How were servants procured for the colonies? Describe the slave trade.

The Revolutionary War. What were the Navigation Acts? Describe the speech of James Otis. Describe the character of George III. What was the Stamp Act? Describe the speech of Patrick Henry. What was the Boston Tea Party? Describe the battle of Lexington. Describe the battle of Bunker Hill. When and where was the Declaration of Independence signed? Describe the battle of Trenton. Describe the winter at Valley Forge. Describe the bravery of Marion and Sumter. Describe the treason of Benedict Arnold. Describe the surrender of Cornwallis.

Establishing the Nation. What were the limited powers of the Continental Congress? Give the seven reasons why a better union of the States was necessary? When and where was the Constitution of the United States made? Name the three departments of the government and define the purpose of each. What were the first two political parties and in what did each one believe? How did the capital of the United States get its present location? What was the X. Y. Z Affair? Describe the exploit of Stephen Decatur in the war with Tripoli. When and for what amount was Louisiana purchased? Describe the explorations of Lewis and Clark. What was the cause of the War of 1812? What is meant by the Era of Good Feeling? What was the Missouri Compromise? What is the Monroe Doctrine?

The Progress of the Nation. Describe travel in early days. What was the condition of free schools in 1825? What brought about the industrial revolution in England? Who was Samuel Slater? De-

scribe the invention of the cotton gin. Describe the work of Robert Fulton in perfecting the steamboat. Describe the voyage of the *Savannah*. Describe the Erie Canal. What was the beginning of railroads in America? Describe the Santa Fé and the Oregon trails.

Sectional Interests and Discords. Describe the inauguration of Andrew Jackson. What is meant by the Spoils System? What brought about the disputes on the tariff? Describe the debate between Hayne and Webster. What was the Nullification Ordinance of South Carolina? What was the Force Bill? Describe Clay's Compromise. Describe the Massacre at the Alamo. What brought about the war with Mexico? What were the terms of the treaty of peace with Mexico? What was the Wilmot Proviso? Describe the invention of the harvester; of the electric telegraph; of vulcanized rubber. Describe the discovery of painless surgery. Describe the discovery of gold in California. What was the Compromise of 1850? What was the Kansas War? What was the Dred Scott Decision? What was John Brown's Raid?

The Civil War. Name the Southern States that seceded from the Union. Give their reasons for seceding. Describe the bombardment of Fort Sumter. Describe the first battle of Manassas. What was the effect of the surrender of New Orleans? What was the *Trent* Affair? Describe the cruise of the *Alabama*. What were the *Alabama* Claims? Describe the battle of the ironclads. What was the Proclamation of Emancipation? Describe the death of Stonewall Jackson. Describe the battle of Gettysburg. Describe the March to the Sea. Tell the story of Lee's surrender. When, where, and by whom was Lincoln assassinated?

Reconstruction and Expansion. What was Lincoln's policy toward the Southern States? What was the Thirteenth Amendment? What was the Fourteenth Amendment? What was the Fifteenth Amendment? Describe the Ku-Klux Klan. When was the Centennial Exposition? What was the Civil Service Reform Act? What caused the war with Spain? Describe the battle of Manila Bay. What were the terms of the treaty of peace?

Enterprises, Inventions, and Industries. Describe the laying of the Atlantic cable. Describe the building of the Panama Canal. Who discovered the North Pole? Describe the enterprise of Thomas A. Edison. Who invented the telephone? What benefit has arisen from wireless telegraphy? To what extent has the automobile industry

grown? Describe the progress of airplane improvements. When was the first Pacific railway completed? Describe the opening of Oklahoma.

The World War. Describe the military system of Germany. What were the wants of Germany? What was the Triple Alliance? The Triple Entente? Describe the Hague Conferences. How did the World War begin? Describe the invasion of Belgium. Why did England enter the war? Describe the devastation of Belgium and northern France. Describe trench warfare. Describe the submarine activity of Germany. Describe the sinking of the *Lusitania*. What are tanks? When did the United States enter the war and why? Describe the selective draft. How many soldiers did the United States send to Europe? What warlike measures were undertaken in the United States? What was the cost of the war? What brought about the demoralization of the German army? When was the armistice signed? What was the result of the Peace Conference?

IMPORTANT DATES IN AMERICAN HISTORY

- Columbus discovers America,
Oct. 12, 1492.
- John Cabot discovers the main-
land, 1497.
- Ponce de Leon names Florida,
1513.
- Balboa discovers the Pacific, 1513.
- Magellan's ship starts around the
world, 1519.
- De Soto discovers the Mississippi,
1541.
- Jamestown, Virginia, settled, 1607.
- Hudson discovers the Hudson
River, 1609.
- Negro slaves brought to Vir-
ginia, 1619.
- Pilgrims land at Plymouth,
Dec. 21, 1620.
- Boston founded, 1630.
- Harvard College founded, 1636.
- Roger Williams founds Provi-
dence, 1636.
- English capture New Amsterdam,
1664.
- Bacon's Rebellion in Virginia,
1676.
- Philadelphia laid out, 1683.
- Witchcraft delusion, 1692.
- William and Mary College
founded, 1693.
- New Orleans founded by French,
1718.
- Baltimore founded, 1730.
- Oglethorpe settles Georgia, 1733.
- Braddock's defeat, 1755.
- The Fall of Quebec, 1759.
- The Stamp Act, 1765.
- The Boston Massacre, March 5,
1770.
- The Boston Tea Party, Dec. 16,
1773.
- First Continental Congress
meets, Sept. 5, 1774.
- Battle of Lexington, April 19,
1775.
- Battle of Bunker Hill, June 17,
1775.
- Washington takes command,
July 3, 1775.
- Declaration of Independence,
July 4, 1776.
- Battle of Trenton, Dec. 26, 1776.
- Surrender of Burgoyne, Oct. 17,
1777.
- Winter at Valley Forge, 1777.
- The French Alliance, Feb., 1778.
- George Rogers Clark takes Vin-
cennes, 1779.
- Arnold's treason, September,
1780.
- Cornwallis surrenders, Oct. 19,
1781.
- Treaty of Paris, Sept. 3, 1785.
- Constitutional Convention, 1787.
- Washington inaugurated, April
30, 1789.
- Whitney invents cotton gin, 1793.
- Death of Washington, Dec. 14,
1799.
- Washington becomes capital, 1800.

- Thos. Jefferson becomes President, 1801.
- Louisiana purchased, 1803.
- Fulton perfects steamboat, 1807.
- The Embargo Act, 1807.
- Second War with England, 1812.
- British capture city of Washington, August, 1814.
- Treaty of Ghent, Dec. 24, 1814.
- Battle of New Orleans, Jan. 8, 1815.
- The *Savannah* crosses the ocean, 1819.
- Florida bought from Spain, 1819.
- The Missouri Compromise, 1821.
- The Monroe Doctrine announced, 1823.
- The visit of Lafayette, 1824.
- The Erie Canal opened, 1825.
- Baltimore & Ohio Railroad begun, 1828.
- Andrew Jackson inaugurated, 1829.
- Hayne and Webster Debate, 1830.
- Nullification Ordinance of South Carolina, 1832.
- McCormick invents the reaper, 1834.
- Texas declares her independence, 1836.
- First electric telegraph message, May 24, 1844.
- Annexation of Texas, 1845.
- Wilmot Proviso, August, 1846.
- Howe invents sewing machine, 1846.
- City of Mexico captured, 1847.
- Gold discovered in California, January, 1848.
- Fugitive Slave law passed, 1850.
- Gadsden Purchase, 1853.
- First Atlantic cable, August, 1858.
- South Carolina secedes, Dec. 20, 1860.
- Fort Sumter bombarded, April 12, 1861.
- First battle of Manassas, July 21, 1861.
- The *Trent* Affair, November, 1861.
- The first battle of ironclads, March 9, 1862.
- Farragut captures New Orleans, April, 1862.
- Emancipation Proclamation, Jan. 1, 1863.
- Battle of Gettysburg, July, 1863.
- Surrender of Vicksburg, July 4, 1863.
- Kearsarge* sinks the *Alabama*, June, 1864.
- Surrender of Lee, April 9, 1865.
- Lincoln assassinated, April 14, 1865.
- Centennial Exposition, 1876.
- Maine* destroyed at Havana, February, 1898.
- Battle of Manila Bay, May 1, 1898.
- Destruction of Cervera's fleet, July 3, 1898.
- Treaty with Spain, Dec. 10, 1898.
- War declared with Germany, April 7, 1917.
- Armistice in World War, Nov. 11, 1918.
- National Prohibition, effective, Jan. 16, 1920.

LIST OF PRESIDENTS AND VICE-PRESIDENTS

List of Presidents and Vice-Presidents 539

| NO. | PRESIDENT | STATE | TERM OF OFFICE | BY WHOM ELECTED | BORN | DIED | VICE-PRESIDENT |
|-----|---------------------|---------------|--------------------------------|--------------------------|----------------|----------------|---|
| 1 | George Washington | Virginia | Two terms: 1789-97 | Entire Electoral College | Feb. 22, 1732 | Dec. 14, 1799 | John Adams |
| 2 | John Adams | Massachusetts | One term: 1797-1801 | Federalists | Oct. 30, 1735 | July 4, 1826 | Thomas Jefferson |
| 3 | Thomas Jefferson | Virginia | Two terms: 1801-09 | Republicans | April 13, 1743 | July 4, 1826 | { Aaron Burr George Clinton |
| 4 | James Madison | Virginia | Two terms: 1809-17 | Republicans | Mar. 16, 1751 | June 28, 1836 | { George Clinton Elbridge Gerry |
| 5 | James Monroe | Virginia | Two terms: 1817-25 | Republicans | April 28, 1758 | July 4, 1831 | Daniel D. Tompkins |
| 6 | John Quincy Adams | Massachusetts | One term: 1825-29 | House of Rep. | July 11, 1767 | Feb. 23, 1848 | John C. Calhoun |
| 7 | Andrew Jackson | Tennessee | Two terms: 1829-37 | Democrats | Mar. 15, 1767 | June 8, 1845 | { John C. Calhoun Martin Van Buren |
| 8 | Martin Van Buren | New York | One term: 1837-41 | Democrats | Dec. 5, 1782 | July 24, 1862 | Richard M. Johnson |
| 9 | William H. Harrison | Ohio | One month: 1841 | Whigs | Feb. 9, 1773 | April 4, 1841 | John Tyler |
| 10 | John Tyler | Virginia | 3 yrs. and 11 mos.: 1841-45 | Whigs | Mar. 29, 1770 | Jan. 18, 1862 | |
| 11 | James K. Polk | Tennessee | One term: 1845-49 | Democrats | Nov. 2, 1795 | June 15, 1849 | George M. Dallas |
| 12 | Zachary Taylor | Louisiana | 1 year and 4 mos.: 1849-50 | Whigs | Sept. 24, 1784 | July 9, 1850 | Millard Fillmore |
| 13 | Millard Fillmore | New York | 2 yrs. and 8 mos.: 1850-53 | Whigs | Feb. 7, 1800 | Mar. 8, 1874 | |
| 14 | Franklin Pierce | New Hampshire | One term: 1853-57 | Democrats | Nov. 23, 1804 | Oct. 8, 1869 | William R. King |
| 15 | James Buchanan | Pennsylvania | One term: 1857-61 | Democrats | April 22, 1791 | June 1, 1868 | { J. C. Breckinridge Hannibal Hamlin |
| 16 | Abraham Lincoln | Illinois | One term and 1 mo.: 1861-65 | Republicans | Feb. 12, 1809 | April 15, 1865 | Andrew Johnson |
| 17 | Andrew Johnson | Tennessee | 3 years and 11 mos.: 1865-69 | Republicans | Dec. 29, 1808 | July 31, 1875 | { Schuyler Colfax Henry Wilson |
| 18 | Ulysses S. Grant | Illinois | Two terms: 1869-77 | Republicans | April 27, 1822 | July 23, 1885 | William A. Wheeler |
| 19 | Rutherford B. Hayes | Ohio | One term: 1877-81 | Republicans | Oct. 4, 1822 | Jan. 17, 1893 | Chester A. Arthur |
| 20 | James A. Garfield | Ohio | Six and a half mos.: 1881 | Republicans | Nov. 19, 1831 | Sept. 19, 1887 | |
| 21 | Chester A. Arthur | New York | 3 yrs., 5½ mos.: 1881-85 | Republicans | Oct. 5, 1830 | Nov. 18, 1886 | Thomas A. Hendricks |
| 22 | Grover Cleveland | New York | One term: 1885-89 | Democrats | Mar. 18, 1837 | June 24, 1908 | Levi P. Morton |
| 23 | Benjamin Harrison | Indiana | One term: 1889-93 | Republicans | Aug. 20, 1833 | Mar. 13, 1901 | Adlai E. Stevenson |
| 24 | Grover Cleveland | New York | One term: 1893-97 | Democrats | Mar. 18, 1837 | June 24, 1908 | Garret A. Hobart |
| 25 | William McKinley | Ohio | One term and 6 mos.: 1897-1901 | Republicans | Jan. 29, 1843 | Sept. 14, 1901 | |
| 26 | Theodore Roosevelt | New York | Two terms: 1901-1909 | Republicans | Oct. 27, 1858 | Jan. 6, 1919 | Charles W. Fairbanks |
| 27 | William H. Taft | Ohio | One term: 1909-1913 | Republicans | Sept. 15, 1857 | | James S. Sherman |
| 28 | Woodrow Wilson | New Jersey | | Democrats | Dec. 28, 1856 | | Thos. R. Marshall |

LIST OF STATES

| | DATE OF AD- MISSION | SQUARE MILES | POPULATION 1910 |
|-------------------------|------------------------|-----------------|--------------------|
| 1. DELAWARE..... | Dec. 7, 1787 | 2,050 | 202,322 |
| 2. PENNSYLVANIA..... | Dec. 12, 1787 | 45,215 | 7,665,111 |
| 3. NEW JERSEY..... | Dec. 18, 1787 | 7,815 | 2,537,167 |
| 4. GEORGIA..... | Jan. 2, 1788 | 59,475 | 2,609,121 |
| 5. CONNECTICUT..... | Jan. 9, 1788 | 4,990 | 1,114,756 |
| 6. MASSACHUSETTS..... | Feb. 6, 1788 | 8,315 | 3,366,416 |
| 7. MARYLAND..... | April 28, 1788 | 12,210 | 1,295,346 |
| 8. SOUTH CAROLINA..... | May 23, 1788 | 30,570 | 1,515,409 |
| 9. NEW HAMPSHIRE..... | June 21, 1788 | 9,305 | 430,572 |
| 10. VIRGINIA..... | June 25, 1788 | 42,450 | 2,061,612 |
| 11. NEW YORK..... | July 26, 1788 | 49,170 | 9,113,279 |
| 12. NORTH CAROLINA..... | Nov. 21, 1789 | 52,250 | 2,206,287 |
| 13. RHODE ISLAND..... | May 29, 1790 | 1,250 | 542,610 |
| 14. Vermont..... | March 4, 1791 | 9,565 | 355,956 |
| 15. Kentucky..... | June 1, 1792 | 40,400 | 2,289,905 |
| 16. Tennessee..... | June 1, 1796 | 42,050 | 2,184,789 |
| 17. Ohio..... | Feb. 19, 1803 | 41,060 | 4,767,121 |
| 18. Louisiana..... | April 8, 1812 | 48,720 | 1,656,388 |
| 19. Indiana..... | Dec. 11, 1816 | 36,350 | 2,700,876 |
| 20. Mississippi..... | Dec. 10, 1817 | 46,810 | 1,797,114 |
| 21. Illinois..... | Dec. 3, 1818 | 56,650 | 5,638,591 |
| 22. Alabama..... | Dec. 14, 1819 | 52,250 | 2,138,093 |
| 23. Maine..... | March 15, 1820 | 33,040 | 742,371 |
| 24. Missouri..... | Aug. 10, 1821 | 69,415 | 3,293,335 |
| 25. Arkansas..... | June 15, 1836 | 53,850 | 1,574,449 |
| 26. Michigan..... | Jan. 26, 1837 | 58,915 | 2,810,173 |
| 27. Florida..... | March 3, 1845 | 58,680 | 752,619 |
| 28. Texas..... | Dec. 29, 1845 | 265,780 | 3,896,542 |
| 29. Iowa..... | Dec. 28, 1846 | 56,025 | 2,224,771 |
| 30. Wisconsin..... | May 29, 1848 | 56,040 | 2,333,860 |
| 31. California..... | Sept. 9, 1850 | 158,360 | 2,377,549 |
| 32. Minnesota..... | May 11, 1858 | 83,365 | 2,075,768 |
| 33. Oregon..... | Feb. 14, 1859 | 96,030 | 672,765 |
| 34. Kansas..... | Jan. 29, 1861 | 82,080 | 1,690,949 |
| 35. West Virginia..... | June 19, 1863 | 24,780 | 1,221,119 |
| 36. Nevada..... | Oct. 31, 1864 | 110,700 | 81,875 |
| 37. Nebraska..... | March 1, 1867 | 77,510 | 1,192,214 |
| 38. Colorado..... | Aug. 1, 1876 | 103,925 | 799,024 |
| 39. North Dakota..... | Nov. 3, 1889 | 70,795 | 577,065 |
| 40. South Dakota..... | Nov. 3, 1889 | 77,650 | 583,888 |
| 41. Montana..... | Nov. 8, 1889 | 146,080 | 376,053 |
| 42. Washington..... | Nov. 11, 1889 | 69,180 | 1,141,990 |
| 43. Idaho..... | July 3, 1890 | 84,800 | 325,594 |
| 44. Wyoming..... | July 10, 1890 | 97,890 | 145,965 |
| 45. Utah..... | Jan. 4, 1896 | 84,970 | 373,351 |
| 46. Oklahoma..... | Nov. 16, 1907 | 70,430 | 1,657,155 |
| 47. New Mexico..... | Jan. 6, 1912 | 122,580 | 327,301 |
| 48. Arizona..... | Feb. 14, 1912 | 113,020 | 204,354 |

ORIGINAL THIRTEEN
RATIFIED THE CONSTITUTION

DECLARATION OF INDEPENDENCE

THE DECLARATION OF INDEPENDENCE, ADOPTED BY
CONGRESS, JULY 4, 1776

A DECLARATION BY THE REPRESENTATIVES OF THE UNITED STATES OF
AMERICA, IN CONGRESS ASSEMBLED

WHEN, in the course of human events, it becomes necessary for one people to dissolve the political bands which have connected them with another, and to assume among the powers of the earth the separate and equal stations to which the laws of nature and of nature's God entitle them, a decent respect to the opinions of mankind requires that they should declare the causes which impel them to the separation.

We hold these truths to be self-evident, that all men are created equal; that they are endowed by their Creator with certain inalienable rights; that among these are life, liberty, and the pursuit of happiness; that, to secure these rights, governments are instituted among men, deriving their just powers from the consent of the governed; that, whenever any form of government becomes destructive of these ends, it is the right of the people to alter or abolish it, and to institute a new government, laying its foundation on such principles, and organizing its powers in such form, as to them shall seem most likely to effect their safety and happiness. Prudence, indeed, will dictate that governments long established should not be changed for light and transient causes; and, accordingly, all experience hath shown that mankind are more disposed to suffer, while evils are sufferable, than to right themselves by abolishing the forms to which they are accustomed. But when a long train of abuses and usurpations, pursuing invariably the same object, evinces a design to reduce them under absolute despotism, it is their right, it is their duty, to throw off such a government, and to provide new guards for their future security. Such has been the patient sufferance of these Colonies; and such is now the necessity which constrains them to alter their former systems of government. The history of the present king of Great Britain is a history of repeated injuries and usurpations, all having in direct object the establishment of an absolute tyranny over these States. To prove this, let facts be submitted to a candid world:—

He has refused his assent to laws the most wholesome, and necessary for the public good.

He has forbidden his governors to pass laws of immediate and pressing

importance, unless suspended in their operations, till his assent should be obtained; and, when so suspended, he has utterly neglected to attend to them.

He has refused to pass other laws for the accommodation of large districts of people, unless those people would relinquish the right of representation in the legislature; a right inestimable to them, and formidable to tyrants only.

He has called together legislative bodies at places unusual, uncomfortable, and distant from the repository of their public records, for the sole purpose of fatiguing them into compliance with his measures.

He has dissolved representative houses repeatedly for opposing, with manly firmness, his invasions on the rights of the people.

He has refused, for a long time after such dissolutions, to cause others to be elected; whereby the legislative powers, incapable of annihilation, have returned to the people at large, for their exercise; the State remaining, in the mean time, exposed to all the dangers of invasions from without, and convulsions within.

He has endeavored to prevent the population of these States; for that purpose, obstructing the laws for the naturalization of foreigners; refusing to pass others to encourage their migration hither, and raising the conditions of new appropriations of lands.

He has obstructed the administration of justice by refusing his assent to laws for establishing judiciary powers.

He has made judges dependent on his will alone, for the tenure of their offices, and the amount and payment of their salaries.

He has erected a multitude of new officers, and sent hither swarms of officers, to harass our people, and eat out their substance.

He has kept among us, in times of peace, standing armies, without the consent of our legislature.

He has affected to render the military independent of, and superior to, the civil power.

He has combined with others to subject us to a jurisdiction foreign to our constitution, and unacknowledged by our laws; giving his assent to their acts of pretended legislation: —

For quartering large bodies of armed troops among us;

For protecting them, by mock trial, from punishment for any murders which they should commit on the inhabitants of these States;

For cutting off our trade with all parts of the world;

For imposing taxes on us without our consent;

For depriving us, in many cases, of the benefits of trial by jury;

For transporting us beyond seas to be tried for pretended offenses;

For abolishing the free system of English laws in a neighboring province, establishing therein an arbitrary government, and enlarging its boundaries, so as to render it at once an example and fit instrument for introducing the same absolute rule into these Colonies ;

For taking away our charters, abolishing our most valuable laws, and altering, fundamentally, the powers of our government ;

For suspending our own legislatures, and declaring themselves invested with power to legislate for us in all cases whatsoever.

He has abdicated government here, by declaring us out of his protection, and waging war against us.

He has plundered our seas, ravaged our coasts, burned our towns, and destroyed the lives of our people.

He is at this time transporting large armies of foreign mercenaries to complete the works of death, desolation, and tyranny, already begun with circumstances of cruelty and perfidy scarcely paralleled in the most barbarous ages, and totally unworthy the head of a civilized nation.

He has constrained our fellow-citizens, taken captive on the high seas, to bear arms against their country, to become the executioners of their friends and brethren, or to fall themselves by their hands.

He has excited domestic insurrections amongst us, and has endeavored to bring on the inhabitants of our frontiers, the merciless Indian savages, whose known rule of warfare is an undistinguished destruction of all ages, sexes, and conditions.

In every stage of these oppressions, we have petitioned for redress in the most humble terms ; our repeated petitions have been answered only by repeated injury. A prince whose character is thus marked by every act which may define a tyrant is unfit to be the ruler of a free people.

Nor have we been wanting in attentions to our British brethren. We have warned them, from time to time, of attempts by their legislature to extend an unwarrantable jurisdiction over us. We have reminded them of the circumstances of our emigration and settlement here. We have appealed to their native justice and magnanimity, and we have conjured them, by the ties of our common kindred, to disavow these usurpations which would inevitably interrupt our connections and correspondence. They, too, have been deaf to the voice of justice and of consanguinity. We must, therefore, acquiesce in the necessity, which denounces our separation, and hold them, as we hold the rest of mankind, enemies in war ; in peace, friends.

We, therefore, the representatives of the UNITED STATES OF AMERICA, in general congress assembled, appealing to the Supreme Judge of the world for the rectitude of our intentions, do, in the name and by the

authority of the good people of these Colonies, solemnly publish and declare, That these United Colonies are, and of right ought to be, *Free and Independent States*; that they are absolved from all allegiance to the British Crown, and that all political connection between them and the State of Great Britain is, and ought to be, totally dissolved; and that, as *Free and Independent States*, they have full power to levy war, conclude peace, contract alliances, establish commerce, and do all other acts and things which *Independent States* may of right do. And for the support of this Declaration, with a firm reliance on the protection of DIVINE PROVIDENCE, we mutually pledge to each other our lives, our fortunes, and our sacred honor.

JOHN HANCOCK.

NEW HAMPSHIRE. — Josiah Bartlett, William Whipple, Matthew Thornton.

MASSACHUSETTS BAY. — Samuel Adams, John Adams, Robert Treat Paine, Elbridge Gerry.

RHODE ISLAND, ETC. — Stephen Hopkins, William Ellery.

CONNECTICUT. — Roger Sherman, Samuel Huntington, William Williams, Oliver Wolcott.

NEW YORK. — William Floyd, Philip Livingston, Francis Lewis, Lewis Morris.

NEW JERSEY. — Richard Stockton, John Witherspoon, Francis Hopkinson, John Hart, Abraham Clark.

PENNSYLVANIA. — Robert Morris, Benjamin Rush, Benjamin Franklin, John Morton, George Clymer, James Smith, George Taylor, James Wilson, George Ross.

DELAWARE. — Cæsar Rodney, George Read, Thomas M'Kean.

MARYLAND. — Samuel Chase, William Paca, Thomas Stone, Charles Carroll of Carrollton.

VIRGINIA. — George Wythe, Richard Henry Lee, Thomas Jefferson, Benjamin Harrison, Thomas Nelson, Jr., Francis Lightfoot Lee, Carter Braxton.

NORTH CAROLINA. — William Hooper, Joseph Hewes, John Penn.

SOUTH CAROLINA. — Edward Rutledge, Thomas Hayward Jr., Thomas Lynch, Jr., Arthur Middleton.

GEORGIA. — Button Gwinnett, Lyman Hall, George Walton.

CONSTITUTION OF THE UNITED STATES

PREAMBLE

WE, the people of the United States, in order to form a more perfect union, establish justice, insure domestic tranquillity, provide for the common defense, promote the general welfare, and secure the blessings of liberty to ourselves and our posterity, do ordain and establish this CONSTITUTION for the United States of America.

ARTICLE I. — LEGISLATIVE DEPARTMENT

SECTION 1. — CONGRESS

All legislative powers herein granted shall be vested in a Congress of the United States, which shall consist of a Senate and House of Representatives.

SECTION 2. — HOUSE OF REPRESENTATIVES

The House of Representatives shall be composed of members chosen every second year by the people of the several States, and the electors in each State shall have the qualifications requisite for electors of the most numerous branch of the State Legislature.

No person shall be a representative who shall not have attained to the age of twenty-five years, and been seven years a citizen of the United States, and who shall not, when elected, be an inhabitant of that State in which he shall be chosen.

Representatives and direct taxes shall be apportioned among the several States which may be included within this Union, according to their respective numbers, which shall be determined by adding to the whole number of free persons, including those bound to service for a term of years, and excluding Indians not taxed, three-fifths of all other persons. The actual enumeration shall be made within three years after the first meeting of the Congress of the United States, and within every subsequent term of ten years, in such manner as they shall by law direct. The number of representatives shall not exceed one for every thirty thousand, but each State shall have at least one representative: and until such enumeration shall be made, the State of New Hampshire shall be

entitled to choose three; Massachusetts, eight; Rhode Island and Providence Plantations, one; Connecticut, five; New York, six; New Jersey, four; Pennsylvania, eight; Delaware, one; Maryland, six; Virginia, ten; North Carolina, five; South Carolina, five; and Georgia, three.

When vacancies happen in the representation from any State, the executive authority thereof shall issue writs of election to fill such vacancies.

The House of Representatives shall choose their Speaker and other officers; and shall have the sole power of impeachment.

SECTION 3. — SENATE

The Senate of the United States shall be composed of two senators from each State, chosen by the Legislature thereof, for six years; and each senator shall have one vote.

Immediately after they shall be assembled in consequence of the first election, they shall be divided as equally as may be into three classes. The seats of the senators of the first class shall be vacated at the expiration of the second year; of the second class, at the expiration of the fourth year; of the third class, at the expiration of the sixth year, so that one-third may be chosen every second year; and if vacancies happen by resignation, or otherwise, during the recess of the Legislature of any State, the executive thereof may make temporary appointments until the next meeting of the Legislature, which shall then fill such vacancies.

No person shall be a senator who shall not have attained to the age of thirty years, and been nine years a citizen of the United States, and who shall not, when elected, be an inhabitant of that State for which he shall be chosen.

The Vice President of the United States shall be president of the Senate, but shall have no vote, unless they be equally divided.

The Senate shall choose their other officers, and also a president *pro tempore*, in the absence of the Vice President, or when he shall exercise the office of President of the United States.

The Senate shall have the sole power to try all impeachments: When sitting for that purpose, they shall be on oath or affirmation. When the President of the United States is tried, the Chief-Justice shall preside: and no person shall be convicted without the concurrence of two-thirds of the members present.

Judgment in cases of impeachment shall not extend further than to removal from office, and disqualification to hold and enjoy any office of honor, trust, or profit under the United States; but the party convicted shall nevertheless be liable and subject to indictment, trial, judgment and punishment, according to law.

SECTION 4. — BOTH HOUSES

The times, places, and manner of holding elections for senators and representatives shall be prescribed in each State by the Legislature thereof; but the Congress may at any time, by law, make or alter such regulations, except as to the places of choosing senators.

The Congress shall assemble at least once in every year, and such meeting shall be on the first Monday in December, unless they shall by law appoint a different day.

SECTION 5. — THE HOUSES SEPARATELY

Each house shall be the judge of the elections, returns, and qualifications of its own members, and a majority of each shall constitute a quorum to do business; but a smaller number may adjourn from day to day, and may be authorized to compel the attendance of absent members, in such manner, and under such penalties, as each house may provide.

Each house may determine the rules of its proceedings, punish its members for disorderly behavior, and, with the concurrence of two-thirds, expel a member.

Each house shall keep a journal of its proceedings, and from time to time publish the same, excepting such parts as may in their judgment require secrecy, and the yeas and nays of the members of either house on any question shall, at the desire of one-fifth of those present, be entered on the journal.

Neither house, during the session of Congress, shall, without the consent of the other, adjourn for more than three days, nor to any other place than that in which the two houses shall be sitting.

SECTION 6. — PRIVILEGES AND DISABILITIES OF MEMBERS

The senators and representatives shall receive a compensation for their services, to be ascertained by law, and paid out of the treasury of the United States. They shall in all cases, except treason, felony, and breach of the peace, be privileged from arrest during their attendance at

the session of their respective houses, and in going to and returning from the same; and for any speech or debate in either house, they shall not be questioned in any other place.

No senator or representative shall, during the time for which he was elected, be appointed to any civil office under the authority of the United States, which shall have been created, or the emoluments whereof shall have been increased, during such time; and no person holding any office under the United States shall be a member of either house during his continuance in office.

SECTION 7. — METHOD OF PASSING LAWS

All bills for raising revenue shall originate in the House of Representatives; but the Senate may propose or concur with amendments as on other bills.

Every bill which shall have passed the House of Representatives and the Senate shall, before it becomes a law, be presented to the President of the United States; if he approve, he shall sign it, but if not, he shall return it, with his objections, to that house in which it shall have originated, who shall enter the objections at large on their journal, and proceed to reconsider it. If after such reconsideration, two-thirds of that house shall agree to pass the bill, it shall be sent, together with the objections, to the other house, by which it shall likewise be reconsidered, and if approved by two-thirds of that house, it shall become a law. But in all such cases the votes of both houses shall be determined by yeas and nays, and the names of the persons voting for and against the bill shall be entered on the journal of each house respectively. If any bill shall not be returned by the President within ten days (Sundays excepted) after it shall have been presented to him, the same shall be a law, in like manner as if he had signed it, unless the Congress by their adjournment prevent its return, in which case it shall not be a law.

Every order, resolution, or vote to which the concurrence of the Senate and House of Representatives may be necessary (except on a question of adjournment) shall be presented to the President of the United States; and before the same shall take effect, shall be approved by him, or being disapproved by him, shall be repassed by two-thirds of the Senate and House of Representatives, according to the rules and limitations prescribed in the case of a bill.

SECTION 8. — POWERS GRANTED TO CONGRESS

The Congress shall have power :

To lay and collect taxes, duties, imposts, and excises, to pay the debts and provide for the common defense and general welfare of the United States ; but all duties, imposts, and excises shall be uniform throughout the United States ;

To borrow money on the credit of the United States ;

To regulate commerce with foreign nations, and among the several States, and with the Indian tribes ;

To establish a uniform rule of naturalization, and uniform laws on the subject of bankruptcies throughout the United States ;

To coin money, regulate the value thereof, and of foreign coin, and fix the standard of weights and measures ;

To provide for the punishment of counterfeiting the securities and current coin of the United States ;

To establish post-offices and post-roads ;

To promote the progress of science and useful arts, by securing, for limited times, to authors and inventors the exclusive right to their respective writings and discoveries ;

To constitute tribunals inferior to the Supreme Court ;

To define and punish piracies and felonies committed on the high seas, and offenses against the law of nations ;

To declare war, grant letters of marque and reprisal, and make rules concerning captures on land and water ;

To raise and support armies, but no appropriation of money to that use shall be for a longer term than two years ;

To provide and maintain a navy ;

To make rules for the government and regulation of the land and naval forces ;

To provide for calling forth the militia to execute the laws of the Union, suppress insurrections and repel invasions.

To provide for organizing, arming, and disciplining the militia, and for governing such part of them as may be employed in the service of the United States, reserving to the States respectively the appointment of the officers, and the authority of training the militia according to the discipline prescribed by Congress ;

To exercise exclusive legislation in all cases whatsoever over such district (not exceeding ten miles square) as may, by cession of particular States, and the acceptance of Congress, become the seat of the government of the United States, and to exercise like authority over all places purchased by the consent of the Legislature of the State in which the same shall be, for the erection of forts, magazines, arsenals, dockyards, and other needful buildings; — And

To make all laws which shall be necessary and proper for carrying into execution the foregoing powers, and all other powers vested by this Constitution in the government of the United States, or in any department or officer thereof.

SECTION 9. — POWERS FORBIDDEN TO THE UNITED STATES

The migration or importation of such persons as any of the States now existing shall think proper to admit, shall not be prohibited by the Congress prior to the year one thousand eight hundred and eight, but a tax or duty may be imposed on such importation, not exceeding ten dollars for each person.

The privilege of the writ of habeas corpus shall not be suspended, unless when in cases of rebellion or invasion the public safety may require it.

No bill of attainder or ex-post-facto law shall be passed.

No capitation or other direct tax shall be laid, unless in proportion to the census or enumeration hereinbefore directed to be taken.

No tax or duty shall be laid on articles exported from any State.

No preference shall be given by any regulation of commerce or revenue to the ports of one State over those of another; nor shall vessels bound to, or from, one State, be obliged to enter, clear, or pay duties in another.

No money shall be drawn from the treasury but in consequence of appropriations made by law; and a regular statement and account of the receipts and expenditures of all public money shall be published from time to time.

No title of nobility shall be granted by the United States: And no person holding any office of profit or trust under them, shall, without the consent of the Congress, accept of any present, emolument, office, or title, of any kind whatever, from any king, prince, or foreign state.

SECTION 10. — POWERS FORBIDDEN TO THE STATES

No State shall enter into any treaty, alliance, or confederation; grant letters of marque and reprisal; coin money; emit bills of credit; make anything but gold and silver coin a tender in payment of debts; pass any bill of attainder, ex-post-facto law, or law impairing the obligation of contracts, or grant any title of nobility.

No State shall, without the consent of the Congress, lay any imposts or duties on imports or exports, except what may be absolutely necessary for executing its inspection laws; and the net produce of all duties and imposts, laid by any State on imports or exports, shall be for the use of the treasury of the United States; and all such laws shall be subject to the revision and control of the Congress.

No State shall, without the consent of Congress, lay any duty of tonnage, keep troops, or ships-of-war, in time of peace, enter into any agreement or compact with another State, or with a foreign power, or engage in war, unless actually invaded, or in such imminent danger as will not admit of delay.

ARTICLE II. — EXECUTIVE DEPARTMENT

SECTION 1. — PRESIDENT AND VICE PRESIDENT

The executive power shall be vested in a President of the United States of America. He shall hold his office during the term of four years, and, together with the Vice President, chosen for the same term, be elected, as follows:

Each State shall appoint, in such manner as the Legislature thereof may direct, a number of electors, equal to the whole number of senators and representatives to which the State may be entitled in the Congress: but no senator or representative, or person holding an office of trust or profit under the United States, shall be appointed an elector.

The electors shall meet in their respective States, and vote by ballot for two persons, of whom one at least shall not be an inhabitant of the same State with themselves. And they shall make a list of all the persons voted for, and of the number of votes for each; which list they shall sign and certify and transmit sealed to the seat of the government of the United States, directed to the president of the Senate. The president of the

Senate shall, in the presence of the Senate and House of Representatives, open all the certificates, and the votes shall then be counted. The person having the greatest number of votes shall be the President, if such number be a majority of the whole number of electors appointed; and if there be more than one who have such majority, and have an equal number of votes, then the House of Representatives shall immediately choose by ballot one of them for President; and if no person have a majority, then from the five highest on the list the said house shall, in like manner, choose the President. But in choosing the President, the votes shall be taken by States, the representation from each State having one vote; a quorum for this purpose shall consist of a member or members from two-thirds of the States, and a majority of all the States shall be necessary to a choice. In every case, after the choice of the President, the person having the greatest number of votes of the electors shall be the Vice President. But if there should remain two or more who have equal votes, the Senate shall choose from them by ballot the Vice President.

The Congress may determine the time of choosing the electors, and the day on which they shall give their votes; which day shall be the same throughout the United States.

No person except a natural born citizen, or a citizen of the United States at the time of the adoption of this Constitution, shall be eligible to the office of President; neither shall any person be eligible to that office who shall not have attained to the age of thirty-five years, and been fourteen years resident within the United States.

In case of the removal of the President from office, or of his death, resignation, or inability to discharge the powers and duties of the said office, the same shall devolve on the Vice President, and the Congress may by law provide for the case of removal, death, resignation, or inability, both of the President and Vice President, declaring what officer shall then act as President; and such officer shall act accordingly until the disability be removed, or a President shall be elected.

The President shall, at stated times, receive for his services a compensation which shall neither be increased nor diminished during the period for which he shall have been elected, and he shall not receive within that period any other emolument from the United States, or any of them.

Before he enter on the execution of his office, he shall take the following oath or affirmation: — "I do solemnly swear (or affirm) that I will

faithfully execute the office of President of the United States, and will, to the best of my ability, preserve, protect, and defend the Constitution of the United States.”

SECTION 2. — POWERS OF THE PRESIDENT

The President shall be commander-in-chief of the army and navy of the United States, and of the militia of the several States, when called into the actual service of the United States; he may require the opinion, in writing, of the principal officer in each of the executive departments, upon any subject relating to the duties of their respective offices; and he shall have power to grant reprieves and pardons for offenses against the United States, except in cases of impeachment.

He shall have power, by and with the advice and consent of the Senate, to make treaties, provided two-thirds of the senators present concur; and he shall nominate, and by and with the advice and consent of the Senate shall appoint ambassadors, other public ministers and consuls, judges of the Supreme Court, and all other officers of the United States, whose appointments are not herein otherwise provided for, and which shall be established by law: but the Congress may by law vest the appointment of such inferior officers, as they think proper, in the President alone, in the courts of law, or in the heads of departments.

The President shall have power to fill up all vacancies that may happen during the recess of the Senate, by granting commissions which shall expire at the end of their next session.

SECTION 3. — DUTIES OF THE PRESIDENT

He shall from time to time give to the Congress information of the state of the Union, and recommend to their consideration such measures as he shall judge necessary and expedient; he may, on extraordinary occasions, convene both houses, or either of them, and in case of disagreement between them with respect to the time of adjournment, he may adjourn them to such time as he shall think proper; he shall receive ambassadors and other public ministers; he shall take care that the laws be faithfully executed, and shall commission all the officers of the United States.

SECTION 4. — IMPEACHMENT

The President, Vice President, and all civil officers of the United States, shall be removed from office on impeachment for, and conviction of, treason, bribery, or other high crimes and misdemeanors.

ARTICLE III. — JUDICIAL DEPARTMENT

SECTION 1. — UNITED STATES COURTS

The judicial power of the United States shall be vested in one Supreme Court, and in such inferior courts as the Congress may from time to time ordain and establish. The judges, both of the Supreme and inferior courts, shall hold their offices during good behavior, and shall, at stated times, receive for their services a compensation which shall not be diminished during their continuance in office.

SECTION 2. — JURISDICTION OF UNITED STATES COURTS

The judicial power shall extend to all cases, in law and equity, arising under this Constitution, the laws of the United States, and treaties made or which shall be made, under their authority; — to all cases affecting ambassadors, other public ministers, and consuls; — to all cases of admiralty and maritime jurisdiction; — to controversies to which the United States shall be a party; — to controversies between two or more States; — between a State and citizens of another State; — between citizens of different States; — between citizens of the same State claiming lands under grants of different States, and between a State, or the citizens thereof, and foreign states, citizens or subjects.

In all cases affecting ambassadors, other public ministers and consuls, and those in which a State shall be party, the Supreme Court shall have original jurisdiction. In all other cases before mentioned, the Supreme Court shall have appellate jurisdiction, both as to law and fact, with such exceptions and under such regulations as the Congress shall make.

The trial of all crimes, except in cases of impeachment, shall be by jury; and such trial shall be held in the State where the said crimes shall have been committed; but when not committed within any State, the trial shall be at such place or places as the Congress may by law have directed.

SECTION 3. — TREASON

Treason against the United States shall consist only in levying war against them, or in adhering to their enemies, giving them aid and comfort.

No person shall be convicted of treason unless on the testimony of two witnesses to the same overt act, or on confession in open court.

The Congress shall have power to declare the punishment of treason, but no attainder of treason shall work corruption of blood, or forfeiture, except during the life of the person attainted.

ARTICLE IV. — RELATIONS OF THE STATES TO EACH OTHER

SECTION 1. — OFFICIAL ACTS

Full faith and credit shall be given in each State to the public acts, records, and judicial proceedings of every other State. And the Congress may by general laws, prescribe the manner in which such acts, records, and proceedings shall be proved, and the effect thereof.

SECTION 2. — PRIVILEGES OF CITIZENS

The citizens of each State shall be entitled to all privileges and immunities of citizens in the several States.

A person charged in any State with treason, felony, or other crime, who shall flee from justice, and be found in another State, shall, on demand of the executive authority of the State from which he fled, be delivered up, to be removed to the State having jurisdiction of the crime.

No person held to service or labor in one State, under the laws thereof, escaping into another, shall, in consequence of any law or regulation therein, be discharged from such service or labor, but shall be delivered up on claim of the party to whom such service or labor may be due.

SECTION 3. — NEW STATES AND TERRITORIES

New States may be admitted by the Congress into this Union; but no new State shall be formed or erected within the jurisdiction of any other State; nor any State be formed by the junction of two or more States, or

parts of States, without the consent of the Legislatures of the States concerned as well as of the Congress.

The Congress shall have power to dispose of and make all needful rules and regulations respecting the territory or other property belonging to the United States; and nothing in this Constitution shall be so construed as to prejudice any claims of the United States, or of any particular State.

SECTION 4. — PROTECTION OF THE STATES

The United States shall guarantee to every State in this Union a republican form of government, and shall protect each of them against invasion, and on application of the Legislature, or of the Executive (when the Legislature cannot be convened) against domestic violence.

ARTICLE V. — AMENDMENTS

The Congress, whenever two-thirds of both houses shall deem it necessary, shall propose amendments to this Constitution, or, on the application of the Legislatures of two-thirds of the several States, shall call a convention for proposing amendments, which, in either case, shall be valid to all intents and purposes, as part of this Constitution, when ratified by the Legislatures of three-fourths of the several States, or by conventions in three-fourths thereof, as the one or the other mode of ratification may be proposed by the Congress; provided that no amendment which may be made prior to the year one thousand eight hundred and eight shall in any manner affect the first and fourth clauses in the ninth section of the first article; and that no State, without its consent, shall be deprived of its equal suffrage in the Senate.

ARTICLE VI. — GENERAL PROVISIONS

All debts contracted, and engagements entered into, before the adoption of this Constitution, shall be as valid against the United States under this Constitution, as under the confederation.

This Constitution, and the laws of the United States which shall be made in pursuance thereof; and all treaties made, or which shall be made, under the authority of the United States, shall be the supreme law of the land; and the judges in every State shall be bound thereby, anything in the Constitution or laws of any State to the contrary notwithstanding.

The senators and representatives before mentioned, and the members of the several State Legislatures, and all executive and judicial officers,

both of the United States and of the several States, shall be bound by oath or affirmation to support this Constitution ; but no religious test shall ever be required as a qualification to any office or public trust under the United States.

ARTICLE VII. — RATIFICATION OF THE CONSTITUTION

The ratification of the Conventions of nine States shall be sufficient for the establishment of this Constitution between the States so ratifying the same.

Done in convention, by the unanimous consent of the States present, the seventeenth day of September, in the year of our Lord one thousand seven hundred and eighty-seven, and of the independence of the United States of America the twelfth.

In witness whereof, we have hereunto subscribed our names.

GEORGE WASHINGTON,
President, and Deputy from Virginia

New Hampshire

JOHN LANGDON
NICHOLAS GILMAN

Massachusetts

NATHANIEL GORHAM
RUFUS KING

Connecticut

WILLIAM SAMUEL JOHNSON
ROGER SHERMAN

New York

ALEXANDER HAMILTON

New Jersey

WILLIAM LIVINGSTON
DAVID BREARLEY

WILLIAM PATERSON
JONATHAN DAYTON

Pennsylvania

BENJAMIN FRANKLIN
THOMAS MIFFLIN
ROBERT MORRIS
GEORGE CLYMER
THOMAS FITZSIMONS
JARED INGERSOLL
JAMES WILSON
GOUVERNEUR MORRIS

Attest: WILLIAM JACKSON, *Secretary.*

Delaware

GEORGE READ
GUNNING BEDFORD, JR.

JOHN DICKINSON
RICHARD BASSETT
JACOB BROOM

Maryland

JAMES M'HENRY
DANIEL OF ST. THOMAS JENIFER
DANIEL CARROLL

Virginia

JOHN BLAIR
JAMES MADISON, JR.

North Carolina

WILLIAM BLOUNT
RICHARD DOBBS SPAIGHT
HUGH WILLIAMSON

South Carolina

JOHN RUTLEDGE
CHARLES C. PINCKNEY
CHARLES PINCKNEY
PIERCE BUTLER

Georgia

WILLIAM FEW
ABRAHAM BALDWIN

AMENDMENTS

ARTICLE I. — Congress shall make no law respecting an establishment of religion, or prohibiting the free exercise thereof; or abridging the freedom of speech, or of the press; or the right of the people peaceably to assemble, and to petition the government for redress of grievances.

ARTICLE II. — A well-regulated militia being necessary to the security of a free State the right of the people to keep and bear arms shall not be infringed.

ARTICLE III. — No soldier shall, in time of peace, be quartered in any house, without the consent of the owner; nor in time of war but in a manner to be prescribed by law.

ARTICLE IV. — The right of the people to be secure in their persons, houses, papers, and effects, against unreasonable searches and seizures, shall not be violated, and no warrants shall issue, but upon probable cause, supported by oath or affirmation, and particularly describing the place to be searched, and the persons or things to be seized.

ARTICLE V. — No person shall be held to answer for a capital, or otherwise infamous crime, unless on a presentment or indictment of a grand jury, except in cases arising in the land or naval forces, or in the militia, when in actual service in time of war and public danger; nor shall any person be subject for the same offense to be twice put in jeopardy of life or limb; nor shall be compelled in any criminal case to be a witness against himself, nor to be deprived of life, liberty, or property, without due process of law; nor shall private property be taken for public use, without just compensation.

ARTICLE VI. — In all criminal prosecutions, the accused shall enjoy the right to a speedy and public trial, by an impartial jury of the State and district wherein the crime shall have been committed, which district shall have been previously ascertained by law, and to be informed of the nature and cause of the accusation; to be confronted with the witnesses against him; to have compulsory process for obtaining witnesses in his favor, and to have the assistance of counsel for his defense.

ARTICLE VII. — In suits at common law, where the value in controversy shall exceed twenty dollars, the right of trial by jury shall be preserved, and no fact tried by a jury shall be otherwise reexamined in any court of the United States than according to the rules of common law.

ARTICLE VIII. — Excessive bail shall not be required, nor excessive fines imposed, nor cruel and unusual punishments inflicted.

ARTICLE IX. — The enumeration in the Constitution of certain rights shall not be construed to deny or disparage others retained by the people.

ARTICLE X. — The powers not delegated to the United States by the Constitution, nor prohibited by it to the States, are reserved to the States respectively, or to the people.

ARTICLE XI. — The judicial power of the United States shall not be construed to extend to any suit in law or equity, commenced or prosecuted against any of the United States by citizens of another State, or by citizens or subjects of any foreign state.

ARTICLE XII. — The electors shall meet in their respective States, and vote by ballot for President and Vice President, one of whom, at least, shall not be an inhabitant of the same State with themselves; they shall name in their ballots the person voted for as President, and in distinct ballots the person voted for as Vice President; and they shall make distinct lists of all persons voted for as President, and of all persons voted for as Vice President, and of the number of votes for each, which list they shall sign and certify, and transmit sealed to the seat of the government of the United States, directed to the president of the Senate; — the president of the Senate shall, in the presence of the Senate and House of Representatives, open all the certificates, and the votes shall then be counted; — the person having the greatest number of votes for President, shall be the President, if such number be a majority of the whole number of electors appointed; and if no person have such majority, then from the persons having the highest numbers not exceeding three on the list of those voted for as President, the House of Representatives shall choose immediately, by ballot, the President. But in choosing the President, the votes shall be taken by States, the representation from each State having one vote; a quorum for this purpose shall consist of a member or members from two-thirds of the States, and a majority of all the States shall be necessary to a choice. And if the House of Representatives shall not choose a President whenever the right of choice shall devolve upon them, before the fourth day of March next following, then the Vice President shall act as President, as in the case of the death or other constitutional disability of the President. The person having the greatest number of votes as Vice President, shall be the Vice President, if such number be a majority of the whole number of electors appointed; and

if no person have a majority, then from the two highest numbers on the list, the Senate shall choose the Vice President ; a quorum for the purpose shall consist of two-thirds of the whole number of senators, and a majority of the whole number shall be necessary to a choice. But no person constitutionally ineligible to the office of President shall be eligible to that of Vice President of the United States.

ARTICLE XIII. — *Section 1.* Neither slavery nor involuntary servitude, except as a punishment for crime, whereof the party shall have been duly convicted, shall exist within the United States, or any place subject to their jurisdiction.

Section 2. Congress shall have power to enforce this article by appropriate legislation.

ARTICLE XIV. — *Section 1.* All persons born or naturalized in the United States, and subject to the jurisdiction thereof, are citizens of the United States and of the State wherein they reside. No State shall make or enforce any law which shall abridge the privileges or immunities of citizens of the United States ; nor shall any State deprive any person of life, liberty, or property, without due process of law, nor deny to any person within its jurisdiction the equal protection of the laws.

Section 2. Representatives shall be apportioned among the several States according to their respective numbers, counting the whole number of persons in each State, excluding Indians not taxed. But when the right to vote at any election for the choice of electors for President and Vice President of the United States, representatives in Congress, the executive or judicial officers of a State, or the members of the Legislature thereof, is denied to any of the male inhabitants of such State, being twenty-one years of age, and citizens of the United States, or in any way abridged, except for participation in rebellion or other crime, the basis of representation therein shall be reduced in the proportion which the number of such male citizens shall bear to the whole number of male citizens twenty-one years of age in such State.

Section 3. No person shall be a senator or representative in Congress, or elector of President or Vice President, or hold any office, civil or military, under the United States, or under any State, who having previously taken an oath as a member of Congress, or as an officer of the United States, or as a member of any State Legislature, or as an executive or judicial officer of any State, to support the Constitution of the United States, shall have engaged in insurrection or rebellion against the same,

or given aid or comfort to the enemies thereof. But Congress may, by a vote of two-thirds of each house, remove such disability.

Section 4. The validity of the public debt of the United States, authorized by law, including debts incurred for payment of pensions and bounties for services in suppressing insurrection or rebellion, shall not be questioned. But neither the United States nor any State shall assume or pay any debt or obligation incurred in aid of insurrection or rebellion against the United States, or any claim for the loss or emancipation of any slave; but all such debts, obligations, and claims shall be held illegal and void.

Section 5. Congress shall have power to enforce, by appropriate legislation, the provisions of this article.

ARTICLE XV. — *Section 1.* The rights of citizens of the United States to vote shall not be denied or abridged by the United States, or by any State, on account of race, color, or previous condition of servitude.

Section 2. Congress shall have power to enforce this article by appropriate legislation.

ARTICLE XVI. — The Congress shall have power to lay and collect taxes on incomes, from whatever source derived, without apportionment, among the several States, and without regard to any census or enumeration.

ARTICLE XVII. — The Senate of the United States shall be composed of two senators from each State, elected by the people thereof, for six years; and each senator shall have one vote. The electors in each State shall have the qualifications requisite for electors of the numerous branches of the State Legislatures.

When vacancies happen in the representation of any State in the Senate, the executive authority of such State shall issue writs of election to fill such vacancies: Provided, That the Legislature of any State may empower the executive thereof to make temporary appointments until the people fill the vacancies by election as the Legislature may direct.

This amendment shall not be so construed as to affect the election or term of any senator chosen before it becomes valid as part of the Constitution.

ARTICLE XVIII. — *Section 1.* After one year from the ratification of this article the manufacture, sale, or transportation of intoxicating liquors within, the importation thereof into, or the exportation thereof from, the United States and all territory subject to the jurisdiction thereof for beverage purposes is hereby prohibited.

Section 2. The Congress and the several States shall have concurrent power to enforce this article by appropriate legislation.

Section 3. This article shall be inoperative unless it shall have been ratified as an amendment to the Constitution by the legislatures of the several States, as provided by the Constitution, within seven years from the date of the submission hereof to the States by the Congress.

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